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UNIVERSAL

GEOGRAPHY,

OR

A DESCRIPTION

OF

ALL THE PARTS OF THE WORLD,

ON A NEW PLAN,

84315

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE;

ACCOMPANIED WITH

ANALYTICAL, SYNOPTICAL, AND ELEMENTARY TABLES.

BY M. MALTE-BRUN.

IMPROVED BY THE ADDITION OF THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION,
DERIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.

VOL. III.

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SYSTEM

OF

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BOOK XLVI.

INDOSTAN.

PART I.

Physical Description.

BOOK XLVI.

In our preceding pages, we have oftener than once had occasion to glance at this finest portion of Asia, which we are now about to describe. In riches, population, and importance, India exceeds one of the great divisions of the world. Here a nation, a language, and a religion, distinguished for the most venerable antiquity, permanently maintain their ground amidst the fall of many successive empires. India has been known to every period of geography since the age of Herodotus. The writings of this father of history [a], those of Strabo [b], of Pliny [c], and of Ptolemy [d], exhibit the knowledge which the Greeks and Romans possessed of India, or, to speak more accurately, their acquaintance with its sea-coasts, and with the banks of the Indus and the Ganges. The account of Cosmas, though not meriting on its own account a conspicuous

Knowledge of this country possessed by the ancients.

[a] See our History of Geography, Books III. VIII. [b] Ibid. Book VIII.
[c] Ibid. The whole of Book XI. [d] Ibid. Book XIV.

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place in the history of geography [e], serves as an intermediate link to connect the geography of the classic writers with that of the Arabians, whose notions were feeble and detached [f] like those furnished by the celebrated Marco Polo [g]. In fine, the voyages and enterprises of the Portuguese, which are amply detailed in our history of geography, make a brilliant figure in that department of geographical study. They render us familiar with India in its later features. They bring, as it were, the shores of India into contact with those of Europe, and by facilitating our comprehension of the materials presented for the study of the present condition of that country, have the effect of rendering our review so much the more easy.

Name of India.

Under the classical appellation of India, the ancients, and most of the moderns, have comprised three great regions of southern Asia. The first is that which is watered by the Indus, the Ganges, and their tributaries, called at present Indostan, in the strictest acceptation of this term. On the south of the river Nerbuddah begins that large triangular region sometimes called by Europeans the peninsula on this side of the Ganges, and by the Indians the Deccan, or "country of the south." To this the island of Ceylon, and the Maldives, though separated by an arm of the sea, form natural appendages. The other peninsular projection, which comprehends the Birman empire, the kingdoms of Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, Laos, Siam, and Malacca, has at present no general name in universal use. Sometimes it is vaguely denominated, "the peninsula beyond the Ganges." Several geographers have called it "external India." We shall afterwards allot a separate portion of our work to that region, under a name which appears to us more appropriate; and in the present book, and the four which follow it, we shall limit our descriptions to the two former divisions, which, both in their physical and political character, have much in common that does not belong to the third mentioned region.

Sanscrit names.

It is to these countries that the Sanscrit names of *Djam-*

[e] Hist. of Geog. Books XI. and XV. [f] Ibid. Book XVI.
[g] Ibid. Book XIX. (Oderic de Portenau, t. XX. 466.)

loo-Dwyp, or the "peninsula of the tree of life," has been applied: also that of *Medhiami* or *Medhia-bhumi*, "the middle dwelling," and *Bharatkand*, or the "kingdom of the Bharat dynasty.[h]" The country is too extensive to have received one general name in the indigenous languages. But from the river which waters its western boundary having the name of *Sind* or *Hind*, which, like the name *Nyl-Ab*, is derived from its blue colour, the adjoining country received among the Persians the name of Hindoostan, and the inhabitants were called Hindoos[i]. From the Persian language these names passed into the Syrian, Chaldee, and Hebrew[k]: they were imitated in the appellations given by the Greeks and Romans; but in the writings of the Indians, the name Sindhoostan denotes exclusively the countries on the river Sind.

The oriental writers subsequent to the Mahometan era have admitted a distinction between the name *Sindh*, taken in the acceptation now mentioned, and *Hind*, which they apply to the countries situated on the Ganges. This application of terms is equally foreign to the national geography of the Indians, with the appellation of Gentoos, which the English apply to the Hindoos, and which comes from the Portuguese term Gentios, signifying Gentiles or Pagans.

BOUNDARIES.

The natural boundaries of India, on the north, are the Himālah mountains, (the *Imaus* and *Eomdus* of the ancients,) which separate Bengal, Oude, Delhi, Lahore, and Cashmere from Thibet. On the Indian side of the loftiest range, a stripe of mountainous but inhabited country intervenes between Thibet and the respective countries now mentioned, but these are considered as belonging to Indostan. On the east the river Brahmapootra seems to be the natural boundary. But beyond this river, some Indian hordes have established themselves in the mountains of Anupectumiu, a region scarcely at all known to us. On the south, Indostan is bounded by the ocean. On the west, the river Indus is, in the opinion of some learn-

[h] *Ezoor-Vedam*, *Mahabharat*. See Wilfort, Asiatic Researches, tom. VIII. and the Edinburgh Review, v. XII. p. 44, &c.

[i] Wahl, Ostindien, II. 210—237.

[k] Esther I. 1.

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ed men, its proper limit, although the oriental geographers, finding that many Indians live in Baloochistan and Mekran, often include these countries in their Sinde or Sindistan[l]. The former is that which we shall adopt, and which seems to be conformable to the nomenclature of the natives on both sides of the river. When Mr. Elphinstone crossed the Indus at Attock, in returning from Peshawer in Afghânistan, his Afghân companions told him he was now in India, although it is seldom that such a river marks an immediate transition, physical or political. Hence some Indian provinces, under the Afghân sway, have been already touched upon, and in their relation to the rest of India, they will again require to be mentioned while we complete our survey of this country.

Superficial extent.

We are not yet in possession of exact data for determining the superficial extent of all India. The Indian, Arabian, and Persian authors, differ considerably in their calculations on this point; a circumstance which partly depends on the uncertainty of the lineal road measures, especially the *coss* or mile, which is subject to great variations in the different provinces[m]. The European travellers are also discordant in their estimates. Tiefenthaler rates the whole superficial extent of India at 155,250 square geographical miles, although he supposes the peninsula to be of equal breadth through its whole extent. Pennant is guilty of the same error: but he thinks that India does not extend so far to the north as geographers have believed, and he rates the whole surface of that country at nearly 173,890 square French leagues[n]. Major Rennel contents himself with saying that Indostan Proper is equal to France, Germany, Bohemia, Hungary, Switzerland, Italy, and the Netherlands: and he compares the size of the Deccan to that of the British isles, Spain, and European Turkey, united, which would amount to 120,000 square leagues; 66,780 for upper Indostan, and 53,076 for the Deccan. Mr. Hamilton makes it 1,280,000 British square miles[o].

[l] Ibn Haukal, Oriental Geography, translated by Ouseley, 138—141. 143.
[m] Wahl, I. 9. Tiefenthaler. [n] Pennant's View of Hindostan, I. 3.
[o] Hamilton's Description of Hindostan, vol. I. Introd. p. XXXVII.

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MOUNTAINS.

Those stupendous mountains which lie on the south of Thibet, and on the north of Indostan, have already come into view in our account of Thibet. It is only of late that we have obtained accurate notions of their extent, their altitude, and the territories in their immediate vicinity, and our information still labours under imperfections. They form one of those interesting chains by which the central plateau of Asia is encircled. All the mountains of these regions, and the mass of elevated land included by them, are called in Hindoo mythology by the names, Meroo, Soomeroo, and Kailassam [p]; names so renowned in the east that their fame reached the Greek and Roman authors. These names designate the Indian Olympus, the native dwelling of gods and of men. These mountains and elevated plains, rich in the precious metals, furnished in the time of Herodotus and of Ctesias, that quantity of native gold and of auriferous sand which gave rise to the fables concerning pismires which industriously amassed stores of this precious metal, and fountains from which it bubbled up [q]. These golden mountains of the Indians bear an equivalent name among the Mongols and the Chinese [r].

The Himālah mountains.

That part which forms the northern boundary of India, is a continuation of the same range with that to the west of the Indus, known among the Afghâns under the name of Hindoo Coosh. To the east of that river, it increases in height, and assumes a character of additional grandeur, both from that circumstance and from its great extent in every direction. It forms, in fact, one of the sublimest features in the structure of the old continent and of the globe. Here a long range of summits, covered with perpetual snow, presents itself to the Hindoo, who has in all ages raised towards it an eye of religious veneration. All the names by which it is distinguished are derived from the

[p] See a Hindoo map of the world in Maurice's Indian Antiquities, and Paulino's Systema Brahmanicum.

[q] See our History of Geography, Books III. and VIII.

[r] *Altai-Alin-Topa*, and *Kin-Shan*.

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Sanscrit term *Hem*, signifying snow. Hence have arisen the name *Imaus* and *Emodus* among the ancients, and the Himālah, Himadri, Himachal, and Himalaya, of the moderns[s]. The river Indus passes through a series of narrow defiles in lat. 55°, which scarcely offer any interruption to the mountain chain. The direction of the mountain is eastward, as far as the north-east point of the valley of Cashmere: from this point, its direction is to the south-east, extending along the sources of all the rivers which run across the Punjab to fall into the Indus, with the exception of the Sutledge, which, like the Indus itself, rises on the north side of the range, and takes its passage across its breadth. Pursuing the same direction the Himālah mountains cross the heads of the Jumna, the Ganges, and their numerous tributary rivers. Farther east, they seem to be penetrated by several rivers, as the Gunduk, the Arum, the Teesta, the Cosi, and the Brahmapootra. The geography of the countries to the east of this last river is so little known, that it is a question whether the same mountain range is continued any farther. It seems agreed that, if it is continued, its height ceases to be equally great; it is probable, however, that a continuation of it extends along the northern frontier of the provinces of Quang-si and Quang-tong all the way to the Chinese sea, declining gradually as it advances to the east.

Their height.

It is only of late that the height of the Himālah mountains on the north of India has been appreciated. In 1802, Col. Crawford made some measurements, which gave a much greater altitude to these mountains than had been ever before suspected, and Col. Colebrooke, from the plains of Rohilcund, made a series of observations, which gave a height of 22,000 feet. Lieut. Webb, in his journey to the source of the Ganges, executed measurements on the peak of Jamunavatari, which gave upwards of 25,000 feet. The same officer, in a subsequent journey,

[s] This old Indian root also brings to mind the *Hemus* of Thrace, the *Hymettus* of Attica, the *Mons Imœus* of Italy, and the different mountains called *Himmel* in Saxony, Jutland, and other countries.

confirmed his former observations. This conclusion was objected to on account of a difference of opinion on the allowance which ought to be made for the deviation of the light from a straight direction, on which all conclusions drawn from the measurement of the angles must depend[t]. In a subsequent journey, however, this same officer confirmed his conclusions by additional measurements, and by observing the fall of the mercury in the barometer, at those heights which he himself visited[u]. It was found by these last observations, that the lower limit of perpetual snow is considerably higher than it ought to have turned out under that latitude, by the application of the principles laid down by Humboldt and Professor Leslie. By the indications of four good barometers, compared with a barometrical journal, kept by Capt. Hardwicke at Dumdum, about fifty feet above the level of the sea, he found the elevation of the Niti Ghaut to be 16,814 feet, yet there was no snow on it, nor on the cliffs 300 feet above it. The line of perpetual snow, therefore, does not begin till at least 17,000 feet above the level of the sea. The banks of the Sutledge, at an elevation of nearly 15,000 feet, afforded pasturage for cattle, and yielded excellent crops of *Ooa* or mountain wheat. This mild temperature, at so great an elevation, is confined to the northern side of the Himālah. At Kedar-Nath and other points on the southern side, perpetual snow commences not much higher than 12,000 feet. This probably depends on the greater height of the whole territory on the north side, in consequence of which, the heat which the earth receives from the solar ray, and which warms the air immediately superincumbent, is not so much expended by the time the ascending air reaches these greater elevations, as in that which has ascended from a much lower country. Mr. Fraser, in a later journey, inferred, that the loftiest peaks of the Himālah varied from 18,000 to 22,000, or at most 23,000 feet, about 4000 less than the preceding estimate. But he had no instruments with him for measuring the altitudes, and no barometer, and he probably

[t] Quarterly Review, Vol. XVI. [u] Ibid. Vol. XVII.

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did not make the due allowance for the extraordinary height of the snow line. He considers that part of the range which lies between Bhagirath and the valley of Nepâl as its most elevated part, the mountains decreasing in height both to the west and to the east. The following are the heights of some of the peaks which have been ascertained:

Dhawalagivri, or the White Mountain, near the sources of the Gunduk river, above the level of the sea,	26,862
Jamootri,	25,500
Dhaiboon, seen from Catmandoo,	24,768
Another Peak seen from the same capital,	24,625
Another near to the preceding,	23,262
A third in the same vicinity,	23,052
Peak St. George, estimated at the same place by Capt. Hodgson,	22,240

Thus the Himālah mountains exceed in elevation the Andes of America; that of Chimborazo, the highest of the latter, not exceeding 21,470 feet above the sea. Through this stupendous chain there are different passes, but all of them laborious to travel, and some highly dangerous. One of the most practicable is that which in its upper part, follows the bed of the river Sutledge. To the east of this, there are some practicable only at a favourable season, and where the traveller still runs the hazard of being caught in a fall of snow, or otherwise perishing with cold. Through the whole mountainous tract, and even before ascending much above the inhabited parts, the traveller is liable to be attacked with an alarming failure of respiration, from the great rarity of the air, an affection attributed by the natives to various fanciful and sometimes superstitious causes. Some of the most difficult passes are occasionally traversed by marauding parties from the one side of the Himālah to carry off the property of the inhabitants on the other. Such passes exist between Nepâl and Thibet, or that stripe lying close to the north side of the Himālah, which is inhabited by Bhootees, and may probably come under the name of Bootan, a name of which we are not at present able to assign the exact local extent. Here there are also one or

more easier passes, chiefly along the beds of the rivers Gunduk, Arun, and Teesta. Hence armies have crossed from Nepâl to attack the territory of Thibet, and a Chinese army has in return invaded and subjugated Nepâl. The difficulty of access to these regions heightens the ardour of the admiring Hindoo, actuated in some degree by curiosity, but much more by superstition, to bathe himself in the icy streams which give origin to the Ganges or its mighty tributaries; to contemplate the mystic rock, which so closely resembles the hind quarters of a bullock, and is reputed to have been the result of a holy transmutation of a divine being, a scene where it is reckoned a merit to make a voluntary sacrifice of life, by precipitating the body over the fatal crag. Superstition has in many instances chosen to cherish its propensities in localities signalized as the origin of large and fertilizing rivers. No where is this carried so far as in this mountainous tract, and it must be confessed, that in no locality is the sublime character of the scenery so much in unison with such feelings. In the Hindoo Pantheon, Himālah is deified, and is described as the father of the Ganges, and of her sister Ooma, the spouse of the destroying power Siva, the favourite object of propitiatory adoration.

Mountains of the west.

Had we extended India to the west of the Indus, we should, in that quarter, have taken the Soliman range as a boundary, participating of the character of the northern boundary in being mountainous, though far from being equally stupendous. These have come under review in our account of Afghânistan. The territory lying along the western bank of the Indus, between the river and the mountains, is Indian both in its aspect and population, though Afghân in its political relations, and therefore will be entitled to a glance in the passing, while we treat of Indostan.

The Ghauts.

Another system of mountains is that of the Ghauts, *i. e.* the "passages, or gates[x]." This is considered as

[x] Very analogous to the Swedish *Gata*, the Danish *Gade*, the Dutch *Gatt*, and the English *Gate*.

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commencing at Cape Comorin: yet the southern chain, or the Malayala mountains[y] form a separate group, terminating in the district of Coimbetore, at the great valley in which the forts of Palikadery and Annamaly are situated.

The eastern Ghauts.

The Ghauts begin separately on the north of these plains, forming two branches, one running to the east, and the other to the west of north. The eastern Ghauts extend seventy miles beyond Madras, forming the boundaries of the Carnatic, and to the north of that country divide into several branches, in which the mountains are subjected to interruptions, being separated by valleys covered with thick forests[z]. But the principal chain is divided by no hollow grounds, except narrow defiles, which are well lined with fortresses. To the natives, this chain is known by the name of Ellacooda, or the "White Mountains." It then runs along the northern margin of the Circars, forming an uninterrupted series of mountains so close as to afford none but two military passes. At the place where the Ghauts separate the Circars from the province of Berar, the mountains become almost inaccessible, and there is only one passage for carriages and for horses, viz. that of Salarghaut, which leads to Behar. Nothing is seen on every hand but masses of rock, rising perpendicularly to the clouds, and leaving apparently no outlet for the intimidated traveller. All the summits of this chain are composed of granite[a], and it every where presents one picture of total barrenness and utter nakedness. Yet large trunks of trees in a state of petrifaction, are found here, and most particularly in the ravines created by the torrents, where trunks, projecting from the steep sides of the rocks, sometimes serve for bridges[b].

Western Ghauts.

The western chain of the Ghauts extends along the west coast to a distance of seventy miles, and acquires a

[y] Malayala signifies mountains.

[z] Lemon on the roads into the Cumbenand-Cudapah countries. Mackenzie on the roads from Nellore to the western passes, in Dalrymple's Oriental Repertory, p. 53.

[a] Buchanan's Journey to the Mysore.

[b] Sonneiat, I. 23.

greater elevation than the eastern chain. Its height has not yet been ascertained by barometrical observations, but it is generally believed to amount to three or four thousand feet. The chain then crosses Kanara and Sunda, passes near to Goa, enters the Mahratta country, and divides into several branches. The closeness of the forests, the depth of the precipices, and the rapidity of the torrents, render these mountains very difficult to cross, and the passage is, in many places, fifty or sixty miles long [c]. They are described as containing much limestone, and some basaltic rocks, but no one has deliberately studied the position and materials of the different strata. Towards the sea-coast, the western Ghauts present a magnificent amphitheatre of rocks and verdure, enlivened with towns and villages. The highest, or at least the steepest part to the east of Surat, goes under the name of the Bala-Ghauts, which is sometimes extended to the whole of the western Ghauts, while the eastern chain, together with the intermediate plateau, is called the Paian-Ghauts.

About the sources of the river Godāvery, some lower chains are sent off from the mass of the western Ghauts, pass through the interior of the peninsula, and join the mountains of Berar and Gundwana.

Vindhia mountains.

The central chains which run parallel to the course of the Nerbuddah river, one on its north side, and the other on the south, generally pass under the Sanscrit name of the Vindhias; the extent which this name embraces appears somewhat arbitrary to our most learned eastern geographers. But Arrowsmith more positively confines it to the mountains immediately adjoining the Nerbuddah. It is also in these central countries that the Hindoos place their Sanyah and their Sookhian mountains, though they have been mistaken for the western Ghauts.

Outlines of India.

With the exception of the point of Diu on the west, and Cape Comorin in the south, India has no great promontories. The peninsula of Guzerat presents a projection altogether singular, and without which, India would form

[c] Dirom's Narrative of the Campaigns of India.

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the oblique quadrangle to which it was compared by the ancients. The bays of Cutch, on the north, and of Cambay on the south of Guzerat, are the only bendings of the coast which merit the name of gulfs. The western coast of the Deccan, though indented by numerous creeks, road-steads, and mouths of rivers, has, on the whole, one uniform direction.

Coasts. Shallows.

From Cape Comorin to the coast of Bengal, there is not a single natural harbour, and the vessels have no retreat excepting the roads belonging to the commercial stations; and even in these the merchant vessels are obliged to ride at a distance of a mile and a half from the shore, and ships of war at two miles. At that distance, the depth does not exceed ten or twelve fathoms. So gradual is the declivity of the bottom, that at a distance of twenty miles from land, the depth does not exceed fifty fathoms. The great number of sand banks, renders it necessary to employ in landing, boats of a particular construction, invented by the natives.

Rivers. Their majestic appearance.

The fertility for which India is distinguished is in a great measure derived from the numerous rivers, streams, and torrents, by which it is watered. The imposing character of these has commanded the admiration both of ancients and moderns. Here all the phenomena which the course of a river can combine, are presented on the most magnificent scale. First falling in foaming turbulence, and frequent cataracts, from immense heights, fed by all the snows of the mountains of central Asia, the Indian rivers already rival, in the volume of their waters, the largest that are to be found on the European continent, even before they have laid aside the impetuous rapidity of our mountain torrents. In the successive junctions of these rivers, the momentum of matter moving from two different directions, produces in its mutual shock and violent intermixture, an encounter like that of two immense armies, which strikes the beholder with feelings at once the most animating, and the most sublime. When farther advanced,

and now arrived in the level country, these enormous currents excavate beds for themselves which are several leagues in breadth. Scarcely does the mariner's eye descry, at any one time, the two opposite banks, which are covered with palm trees, temples, and palaces; the transparent waters, like those of the ocean, have a surface smooth as a mirror, except when ruffled by the winds. A force, resistless but imperceptible, hurries along the myriads of barks with which their surface is covered. The tides of the great ocean, entering with freedom the wide expansion of their beds, repel the river waves, and sometimes the retrograde current is rapid and violent. At the place of meeting, navigation becomes apparently hazardous, from the mountainous elevation of the waves, and the powerful whirl generated by the mutually opposing streams.—These great and numerous currents of water do not, however, entirely neutralize the parching influence of the tropical temperature. Many districts of India, between the Indus and the Ganges, exhibit a scene of the most frightful sterility. Hundreds of villages forming the same neighbourhood, depend for subsistence on the waters derived from immense tanks, or reservoirs, which have been formed at an enormous expense.

The Indus.

We shall begin our delineations with the river earliest known to the western world, the Indus. The sources of this river have not yet been fully explored. But our information extends higher in its course than it did a few years ago. We have been enabled, at least, to correct the error of mistaking this river, or some of its eastern tributaries, for the source of the Ganges, an error which we find adopted in the construction of maps till a very recent period. The commencement of this river is fixed, by the most probable conjecture, in the northern declivity of the Cailas branch of the Himālah mountains, about lat. 31° 30′ N. and long. 80° 30′ E. not far from the town of Gortop in the Undes, a territory now under the dominion of China, and within a few miles of the lake Rawanshead and the sources of the river Sutledge. It is sup-

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posed to flow for 400 miles in a N.N.W. direction, then assuming a S.W. course, comes to Drâss, a town of Little Thibet; here it is seventy yards broad, and excessively rapid, and it receives another large branch, called the Ladak river, which flows past the town of Ladak. It is only below Drâss that its course is known with certainty, the difficult and desolate nature of the country having checked inquiries in its higher parts. From Drâss, the Indus pursues its solitary course for above 200 miles, through a rude and mountainous country to Mullai, where it receives the Abasseen, penetrates the highest Hindoo Coosh range, passes for fifty miles through the lower parallel ranges, to Torbaila, where it enters the valley of Chuch, spreading and forming innumerable islands. About forty miles lower down, it receives the Caubul river from the west, and soon after rushes through a narrow opening into the midst of the branches of the Soliman range of mountains. Its stream is extremely turbulent, and sounds like a stormy sea. When its volume is increased by the melting of the snow, a tremendous whirlpool is created, and the noise is heard to a great distance. Here boats are frequently sunk, or dashed to pieces. There are two black rocks in this part of the river, named Jellalia and Kemalia, which are pointed out by the inhabitants as the transformed bodies of the two sons of Peeree Taruk, (the Apostle of Darkness) founder of the Rooshenia sect, who were thrown into the river by Akhoond, the opponent of their father. At the town of Attock, the river, after having been widely spread over a plain, becomes contracted to 260 yards, but is much more deep and rapid. When its floods are highest it rises to the top of a bastion about thirty-seven feet high. At Neelâb, fifteen miles below Attock, it becomes still narrower. From this it winds among the hills to Calabag, passes through the salt range in a clear, deep, and placid stream, and then pursues a southerly course to the ocean, without any interruption, or confinement from hills. It expands into various channels which separate and meet again. Below Attock it receives the Toe and other brooks from the

west. At Kaggawala, the Koorum, a stream of considerable magnitude from the Soliman mountains, falls into it. The only one to the south of this point which it receives, is the Arul, which supplies very little water, being mostly drawn off for irrigation in the north of Damaun. At Kaheree, the Indus, when at its lowest, is 1000 yards in breadth, and rather shallow, being diminished by the separation of some branches from it. At Mittenda it receives the Punjnud, formed by the union of five large tributaries. This immense stream previously flows parallel to the Indus for seventy miles; at Ooch, which is fifty miles up, the distance across, from the Indus to the Punjnud, is not more than ten miles. In July and August, this whole space is completely flooded. The most of the villages contained in it are temporary erections, a few only being situated on spots artificially elevated. The whole country which it traverses is of the same description, all the way to Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde. On the left bank are some considerable towns and villages, with canals for agricultural purposes. Though the Indus gives off lateral streams as it approaches the sea, it does not form a Delta exactly analogous to that of Egypt. Its waters enter the sea in one volume, the lateral streams being absorbed by the sand without reaching the ocean. It gives off an easterly branch called the Fullalee, but this returns its waters to the Indus at a lower point, forming in its circuit the island on which Hyderabad stands. From the sea to Hyderabad, the breadth of the Indus is generally about a mile, varying in depth from two to five fathoms. The tides are not perceptible in this river higher up than sixty or sixty-five miles from the sea. The land near the mouth does not possess the fertility of the Delta of the Nile, or the Ganges. The dry parts exhibit only short underwood, and the remainder arid sand, putrid salt swamps, or shallow lakes. From the sea to Lahore, a distance of 760 geographical miles, the Indus and its tributary the Ravey are navigable for vessels of 200 tons. In the time of Aurengzebe, a considerable trade was car-

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ried on by means of this navigation, but from the political state of the country it has long ceased.

Names.

From Attock to Mooltan, this river is called by the natives the Attock, and further down it has the name of Soor, or Shoor, but among the Asiatics, it is generally known by the name of Sinde. Though one of the largest rivers in the world, the Indus has never obtained such a reputation for sanctity as many inferior streams in Indostan, a circumstance which may proceed from the barren and uninteresting character of the country through which it flows.

Rivers of the Punjâb.

The five eastern tributaries which by their union form the Punjnud, are celebrated from having been the scene of some events conspicuous in history. The most northerly is the Jylum, or *Hydaspes*, the Bahut of Abul Fazel, which takes its rise in the mountains on the south-east side of the valley of Cashmere, where it is called the Vedusta. Proceeding westward, through that celebrated valley, it passes the capital, where it is joined by a small stream from the Ouller lake. Twelve miles further down, it is joined by the Little Sinde, still runs straight west, through the hills and valleys adjoining Cashmere, increased by numerous rivulets and torrents in its way. Before it turns south, it receives the Kishengunga, coming from the northward, in its course through the hills.—This river is extremely rapid, and from 100 to 600 yards broad. It is never fordable, but only fifteen or twenty yards of its breadth are so deep as to require swimming. It flows southward 450 miles till it joins the Chenâb at Tremmoo, 100 miles above Mooltan. The Chenâb or *Acesines*, the second tributary, and the largest of the five, arises in the Himâlah mountains, near the south-east corner of Cashmere, in the Alpine district of Kishtewar. Due north from the city of Lahore, this river is 300 yards wide in the dry season, but a mile and three furlongs when swelled by the rains. Like the Jylum, it is not fordable, yet easily crossed in consequence of a small portion of its width requiring to be swum over. Its junction with the Jylum is accompanied with great

The Jylum or *Hydaspes*.

The Chenâb or *Acesines*.

noise and violence; a circumstance noticed both by the historians of Alexander and of Timoor. Fifty miles below their junction these united streams receive the Ravey.

The Ravey or *Hydraotes* is the third of the Punjâb rivers. It issues from the mountainous districts of Lahore, but its sources have not been explored. Flowing to the south-west, it enters the plains near Rajepoor, from which the canal of Shahnehr was formerly drawn to Lahore, a distance of eighty miles, though now filled up. It supplied the city with water, by keeping it at a higher level in the dry season, when this, like most of the Indian rivers, is twenty or thirty feet below its banks. Here it is fordable in dry weather, being only four feet deep. It has many banks and quicksands; its sides are low and well wooded. It enters the united streams of the Jylum and Chenâb forty miles above the city of Mooltan. This is the least of the five rivers. Its length probably does not exceed 580 miles. The Ravey.

The fourth is the Beyah, or *Hyphasis*, rising in the mountains of Keloo in the pergunnah of Sultanpoor. It is shallow and fordable in dry weather, but abounds in quicksands. This and the fifth, or Sutledge, meet before either has proceeded more than a fifth part of the diameter of the Punjâb country, and their united stream flows the rest of the distance, to complete the conflux called the Punjnud. The Beyah.

The Sutledge rises in the Undes to the north of the great Himâlah range, within the territory claimed by the Chinese; proceeds almost due west; then gradually bends to the south in crossing the subordinate mountains. It is the *Hesudrus* of Pliny, the *Zaradrus* of Ptolemy, and the *Saranges* of Arrian. It exhibits stripes of fertility along its banks, in the midst of a cold and dreary though sublime region, forming the western limit of the hilly territories which the British lately wrested from the power of the Ghoorkas. Whether it rises from the celebrated and sacred lake Mana-sarovara, or not, is a point not satisfactorily ascertained; and the precautionary policy of the Chinese government will pro- The Sutledge.

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bably long prevent us from acquiring a more correct knowledge of geography in that direction. The Sutledge seems to be the largest river within the Himālah range, between the Indus and the Brahmapootra. From its origin to its junction with the Beyah, it runs about 500 miles. The united Beyah and Sutledge are called the Kehra or Gavra, which flows for more than 300 miles before it forms the Punjnud, which contains the waters of the whole five, and carries them to the Indus.

The union of all the five rivers into one before they reach the Indus, was a point in geography maintained by Ptolemy; but, owing to the obscurity of modern accounts, promoted by the splittings of the Indus, and the frequent approximation of streams running in parallel courses, we had been taught to correct this as a specimen of that author's deficiency of information, till very recent and more minute inquiries have re-established that questioned point, and along with it the merited credit of the ancient geographer.

The Ganges.

The Ganges is called by the Hindoos, *Padde*, and *Boora Gonga*, or "the river," by way of eminence. This mighty river was long supposed to have its origin on the northern side of the Himālah mountains, till the fact came to be doubted by Mr. Colebrooke; in consequence of which Lieut. Webb being sent in 1808 by the Bengal government to explore its sources, ascertained that all the different streams above Hurdwar, which form the Ganges, rise on the south side of the snowy mountains. At some places above its confluence with the Jumna, the Ganges is fordable; but its navigation is never interrupted. At a distance of 500 miles from the sea, the channel is thirty feet deep when the river is at its lowest. This depth it retains all the way to the sea, where, however, the settling of sand by the neutralization of the current, from the meeting of the tide with the stream of the river, produces bars and shallows which prevent the entrance of large vessels. The accessions which the Ganges receives in spring by the melting of the mountain snow are not considerable. At any great distance from the sources, as at Patna, any caus-

Its source.

affecting these sources produces little comparative effect. About 200 miles from the sea, the Delta of the Ganges commences by the dividing of the river. Two branches, the Cossimbazar, and the Jellinghy, are given off to the west. These unite to form the Hoogly, or Bhagirathy, on which the port of Calcutta is situated. It is the only branch commonly navigated by ships, and in some years it is not navigable for two or three months. The only secondary branch which is at all times navigable for boats, is the Chandah river. That part of the Delta which borders on the sea is composed of a labyrinth of creeks and rivers called the Sunderbunds, with numerous islands, covered with the profuse and rank vegetation called jungle, affording haunts to numerous tigers. These branches occupy an extent of 200 miles along the shore. The Ganges, though so little affected by the melting of the snows, owes part of its increase to the rains which fall in the mountains. Hence it rises fifteen feet by the end of June, when the rainy season in the low country is scarcely begun. The remainder of its rise, which is in all thirty-two feet, is occasioned by the rain which falls in Bengal. By the end of July all the lower parts of the country adjoining the Ganges, as well as the Brahmapootra, are overflowed for a width of 100 miles, nothing appearing but villages, trees, and the sites of some villages which have been deserted. A stripe along each bank of the river remains for some time uncovered, that part being highest in consequence of the more abundant deposition of mud at the river's edge, where the quantity held in suspension is the largest and contains the heaviest particles. Between August and November it decreases from four inches to two per day, and after that till April continues decreasing at a daily rate of half an inch. The difference of elevation of the waters always diminishes as the river approaches to the sea. At Luckipoor it is only six feet, at Dacca fourteen, and at Custee thirty-one. This last place is 240 miles from the sea, and the surface of the river in the dry season is eighty feet above that of the ocean. The Ganges is calculated to discharge in the dry season 80,000 cubic feet of water in a second;

Division into branches.

Overflowings.

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Volume of its water.

and, as its water has double the volume when at its height, and moves with a greater velocity in the proportion of five to three, it must at that time discharge 405,000 cubic feet. The average for the whole year is reckoned 180,000. The deposition of slime is sometimes extremely rapid, so as to fill up deep beds, or form extensive islands. In other parts the river extends its width in particular lateral directions, forming steep banks of soft soil, which, from their liability to tumble in, are dangerous of approach by land or by water.

Worship paid to it.

That line of the Ganges which lies between Gangootree, or the source of the leading stream, and Sagor island, below Calcutta, is held particularly sacred. The main body which goes east to join the Brahmapootra, is not regarded with equal veneration. Certain parts of the line now mentioned are esteemed more sacred than the rest, and are the resort of numerous pilgrims from great distances to perform their ablutions, and take up the water to be employed in their ceremonies. Wherever the river happens to run from south to north, contrary to its general direction, it is considered as peculiarly holy. The places most superstitiously revered are the junctions of rivers, called *Prayags*, the principal of which is that of the Jumna with the Ganges at Allahabad. The others are situated among the mountains. Hurdwar, where the river escapes from the mountains, and Sagor island, at the mouth of the Hoogly, are also sacred. The water of the Ganges is esteemed for its medicinal virtues, and on that account drunk by Mahometans, as well as Hindoos. In the British courts of justice, the water of the Ganges is used for swearing Hindoos, as the Koran is for Mahometans, and the gospels for Christians.

The waters of the Ganges are augmented by many successive tributaries, some of which are very large rivers. On its right bank it receives the Jumna, which has a previous course of 780 miles from the lower range of the Himalah between the Sutledge and the Ganges, and falls into the latter at the fortress of Allahabad. It is said to receive at the same point a rivulet under ground, on which account

the junction is called, according to Tiefenthaler, Trebeni, or the confluence of three rivers. Lower down it receives the Soane, which arises in the table land of Amerkoontook, in the mountains of Gundwana, and falls into the Ganges a little above Patna. On its left it receives the Ramgonga, from the mountains of Kemaoon; and the Goomty, which, arising in the same hills, crosses the province of Oude, from north-west to south-east, passing Lucknow, and falls into the Ganges below Benares. The Gogra, after forming the eastern boundary of the British district of Kemaoon, which it separates from the Goorkha territory, passes near Fizabad, and joins the Ganges in Berar, where it is called Dewa, being one of the longest tributaries which the Ganges receives. The Gunduk is supposed to rise near the great Himâlah peak called Dhawala Giri, or the "White Mountain." Some conjecture it to come from the plateau of Thibet. In its higher parts it is called Salgrami, from the number of ammonites contained in the schistous rocks over which it passes, which are objects of worship among the Hindoos under the name of Salgrams, being considered as visible traces of the divine Vishnu. It joins the Ganges opposite to Patna. The Cosi arises in the Nepâl hills near Catmandoo, receives the Arun, (which is supposed to rise from the north side of the great mountain ridge, and penetrate between its snowy peaks,) and joins the Ganges in Bengal, after a course of 300 miles. The Teesta has not been explored by Europeans, but is said by the Nepâlese to arise in Thibet, and cross the great mountains. It formed till lately the eastern boundary of the Nepâl territory, separating it from the dominions of the Deb Raja of Bootan. It joins the Pudda, or great body of the Ganges, after a course of 400 miles.

The Brahmapootra.

The Brahmapootra is the largest river of India, though among the least sacred. Its sources, though never yet explored, seem to be situated near lake Manasarovara in Thibet, near those of the Indus and the Sutledge. It flows eastward through Thibet, where it is known under the name of Sanpoo, or "the river." It passes near to Lassa,

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the residence of the great Lama, also to the north of Teshoo Lomboo, the seat of the Teshoo Lama, occupying a widely expanded bed, and forming numerous islands. Its principal channel near this place is narrow, deep, and never fordable. It receives various rivers from the south, and probably also from the north. After a long easterly course, in which it is conjectured to approach within 220 miles of Yunan, a province of China, it makes a vast circuit round the mountains, where it is lost to European knowledge. Making a sudden curve to the south it reappears in Assam, into which country it is supposed to descend by a series of cataracts, and up to which it is said to be navigable. On reaching Assam, it turns nearly due west, receiving a copious augmentation from numerous mountain tributaries. During this direction of its course, it separates into two; the southern branch being distinguished from the northern or main body by the name Kolong. These meet again after inclosing an island five days' journey in length and one in breadth. About Goalpara, the British frontier town, the expanse is magnificent and the scenery grand, but the water is dirty and offensive. During floods it carries before it logs of wood and vast floats of reeds, together with dead bodies of men, deer, and oxen. In its rise and fall, it follows periods nearly coinciding with those of the Ganges. Its navigation is rendered difficult by shifting sand-banks and trunks of trees sticking in its bed. Its banks and islands within the British territories undergo continual changes. After entering Bengal, the Brahmapootra makes a circuit round the western point of the Garrow mountains, then runs southward through the Dacca province, is joined by the Megna, which, though a comparatively small river, now gives its name to the united stream, which is regularly four or five miles wide. The course of the Brahmapootra has a length of 1650 miles, but passes through a rude climate and a barren soil, differing in this respect widely from the Ganges. Rising from opposite sides of the same mountains, these rivers separate to a distance of 1200 miles, but are

destined to meet again at Luckipoor in Bengal, where they form a wide gulf[a] communicating with the ocean.

The Nerbuddah is one of the largest rivers which have their rise in the interior of India. It comes down from the plateau of Amerkoontook, close to the source of the Soane, and runs in a solitary course, scarcely receiving any other river, its waters being augmented by very small streams. It flows directly west to the Gulf of Cambay, where it falls into the ocean near to the city of Broach. In the dry season it may be crossed on foot. The Nerbuddah.

The Tuptee also runs from east to west, rising in Gundwana near the village of Batool, and flows into the sea at a distance of a few leagues from Surat. The mouths of both these rivers are greatly obstructed with sand banks. The Tuptee.

The peninsula of the Deccan is, like the more northerly parts of India, well watered with rivers, the greater part of which descend from the western Ghauts, run from west to east, and fall into the Bay of Bengal. Beginning in its northern part, we have first the Mahanady, or Kuttak, rising in the mountains of Bundelkund, and crossing the province of Berar with many sinuosities, where it receives numerous rivers; near to the city of Kuttak it divides into several branches, one of which falls into the lake Chilka, while the others continue their course to the Bay of Bengal, forming a delta of islands covered with jungle and wild thickets.

The Godavery, descending from the western Ghauts, waters the Nizam territory and Berar, is joined by the Wurda, the Silair, and the Bhaigonga, and divides into two branches at Rajamundry, which afterwards form more numerous streams, and fall by so many mouths into the bay. This river is held very sacred by the superstitious Hindoos. It is sometimes named the Ganges, and its source, like that of the great Ganges, "The Cow's Mouth." The Godavery.

[a] Dr. F. Buchanan, Turner, Rennel, &c.

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The Krishna.

The Krishna, farther to the south, has a similar origin with the preceding, crossing, like it, almost the whole peninsula; receives the waters of the Beema, the Gutpurba, the Malpurba, and the Tomboodra, crosses the Soobah of the Deccan, and falls into Bengal Bay, to the south-west of Masulipatam. This river is another object of worship; its name signifies black, that being supposed to be the colour of Vishnu under his ninth incarnation. Like the Ganges it has its periodical floods.

The Cavery.

Among various streams of less note in the south of the Deccan is the Cavery, which comes from the mountains of Coorg, crosses the Mysore, which it fertilizes, and the Carnatic below, which owes its chief productions to the water which it distributes. It is the most useful river in the south of India. Opposite to Trichinopoly it separates into two branches, and forms the island of Seringham. The southern branch runs at the highest level, and is very much drawn off by canals for agricultural purposes. The northern, which is called the Coleroon, runs in a low bed. It approaches the other about thirteen miles below their place of separation, and mounds are formed to prevent the waters of the Cavery, or southern branch, from falling down into it. The coming of the fresh water from the interior is celebrated by the natives with joyous festivity. The river is adored as one of their most beneficent deities[e], and the anniversary of the marriage of the goddess of the river to the god Renganaden, is held annually by the worshippers of Vishnu.

CLIMATE.

Seasons.

Dry season.

Only two seasons are known in India, the dry and the rainy, produced by the south-west and north-west monsoons. In the dry season, vegetation universally labours under a deadly langour, most especially if the rains are unusually late in setting in; but a rain of one night's duration transforms into a verdant meadow, a plain which on the preceding day was a spectacle of utter aridity, where not one leaf of herbage could be found. In the in-

[e] Wilks, Heyne, &c.

terior and western parts of India, the rainy season commences in April or May, and continues to the end of October. On the Coromandel coast it begins later, as the clouds which are brought by the south-west winds are detained by the Ghauts. BOOK XLVI.

Rainy season.

While this season lasts, it is a rare thing to see the rays of the sun penetrating the dense vapours with which the atmosphere is loaded. In Bengal it rains incessantly for many days. Twenty, or twenty-two inches depth of water are computed to fall in a month. The rivers overflow their banks, and cover the whole country, except places which are on elevated situations, or protected by dykes. On the Malabar coast, the sudden heavy showers, storms, and hurricanes, are more violent than on that of Coromandel. If the rain does not come on at the ordinary time, or if it is not in sufficient quantity, dismal effects follow for the whole year, often amounting to the most destructive famine. In 1793, so great was the scarcity occasioned by the drought, that parents sold their children for a few pounds of rice. The conclusion of the rainy season is marked by changes of wind and storms of the most violent description. Bernier has remarked that the rain does not come from the same quarter of the heavens in all parts of India; that about Delhi it almost always comes from the east; in Bengal, and on the Coromandel coast, from the south; and on the coast of Malabar from the west[f].

Temperature.

The climate of India is that of a country chiefly situated within the torrid zone, and at the same time, adjoining a boundless mass of icy mountains. In the greater part of this extensive country snow and ice are unknown; but every other disadvantage of weather is incident to it in a temporary manner. Nowhere do hurricanes rage with greater fury. Nowhere are the lightnings and peals of thunder more appalling. Nowhere is the husbandman more liable to the threatened ravages of protracted drought or drenching floods of rain. It might be interesting to determine the general laws on which the local variations of the seasons in different parts of India depend. Why do

[f] Bernier, Voyage, edit. Amsterd. 1709, tom. II. p. 319. Rennel's Memoir.

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the rains last for eight months in the Circars, and only two in the Carnatic, as has been asserted, these countries both lying on the Coromandel coast? But Europeans have sometimes exaggerated the prominent features of the climate, by giving way to first impressions. Bengal has received a bad character for insalubrity, and certainly it is in an eminent degree exposed to a succession of violent extremes and vicissitudes; at one time to excessive rain, at another to storms; then to scorching heat, and frequently to thick fogs; yet the English have, by dint of prudent regimen, accommodated themselves to the climate[g]. The shores of Coromandel experience more violent heat and drought than those of Malabar; yet the narrow valleys and thick forests of this latter country comprehend many unhealthy situations. The waste lands situated between the two chains of the Ghauts, the countries lying between the Jumna and the Ganges, the territories forming the Punjâb, or lying in its neighbourhood, derive from their moderate elevation above the sea, from their wooded hills, and their numerous streams, a temperature less oppressive, and a purer and healthier air[h], except where forests, marshes, or arid deserts give rise to local disadvantages. The great desert situated on the south-east of the Indus, and to the north of the Guzerat, exhibits all the horrors of the deserts of Arabia, while the valleys of Cashmere and Serinagur, Gorkhah, and Nepâl, encircled with alpine heights, experience, in succession, the rigours of a real winter, the delights of a lengthened spring, and a healthy summer.

Reputed longevity of the Indians.

It was in the Punjâb, and these other elevated countries, that the ancients collected numerous examples of Indian longevity[i]. The *Cyrni*, and the subjects of Prince *Musicanus* often lived to the age of 130, or 200 years. The

[g] Gladwyn's Natrative of the Transactions in Bengal, p. 27, &c.

[h] Forster's Journey from Bengal to Petersburgh. Buchanan's Travels in the Mysore.

[i] Strab. XV. 701. Amelov. Faria y Sousa, Asia Portugueza.

moderns have gone still farther. The Portuguese historian Faria states, that an inhabitant of Diu attained the age of three full centuries; and he adds that, according to the accounts of the natives, several individuals of 200 were to be found in Guzerat. Extreme simplicity of diet and perfect tranquillity of mind may procure for some of the Fakirs a lengthened period of existence; but, taken at an average, this is a climate in which the force of vitality receives a quick development, and is subjected to speedy exhaustion. Acute diseases carry off numerous victims by sudden death. One of the most formidable is the bilious colic, known on the coast of Coromandel by the name of *mordekshim*, transformed by Sonnerat and other French writers, with more humour than truth, into *mort de chien*, "the death of a dog." The hill fever, which prevails in the higher part of the Circars in the districts of Grandjam and Viragapatam, is ascribed to the stagnant air of the forests, and the narrow shaded valleys. Other fevers, no less pernicious, operate as a scourge to the inhabitants of the Carnatic, known by the name of the *gendchi* fevers[k]. Leprosies assume a dreadful character in the warm and moist districts: the most terrible form of the Arabian leprosy, that in which the limbs drop off joint by joint, extends its ravages among the more indigent classes[l]. It differs from the elephantiasis of modern physicians, which seems to be a kind of dropsy accompanied with cutaneous eruption. This last disease, which prevails on the coast of Cochin, where the water is of bad quality, derives its name from the enormous enlargement of the patient's limbs, which resemble those of an elephant[m]. But among the ancients the term was applied to a leprosy distinguished by white wrinkled blotches on the skin. The Europeans, who generally es-

Endemic diseases.

Elephantiasis.

[k] Anquetil, Voyage.

[l] The Djosaam of the Arabs; also the *Daa-el-arad*, or lion's disease; the λεοντιασις of the Greeks.

[m] Ives, Voyage, I. See M. Allard's work on a disease resembling elephantiasis.

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cape these dismal visitations, are not exempt from the slow influence of a hot temperature, and a continual excessive perspiration. They contract a sallow complexion, and are early subjected to the infirmities of old age. A slow inflamation, or disorganization of the liver, is the most common complaint among them [n]. But, with all these partial disadvantages, India contains in its cultivated parts the most healthy climates to be found in Asia.

FERTILITY.

The fertility of the soil, and the nature of the productions, are as various as the temperature and climate. India is traversed by large chains of rocky mountains, and by hills of sand. Both of these are found in the province of Sinde. A series of rocky mountains reaches from the confines of Mooltan to Tatta, and a series of sandy hills from Ootch to Guzerat. We have also sandy deserts where the burning south wind carries before it clouds of dust, in which it buries houses and cultivated fields. There is another twenty miles long between Rooderpoor in Delhi and Almora, covered with thorny briars and resinous shrubs [o]. The northern provinces contain numerous savannahs. At the mouths of the great rivers the soil is usually marshy. In some instances the marshy land extends along a great part of the banks of the rivers in the interior. But, with the exception of these uncultivated parts, India presents on all hands beautiful meadows, rich pastures, fields loaded with abundant harvests, which are gathered twice in the year, and valleys filled with every useful and every beautiful product of vegetation.

Deserts.

Alimentary plants.

Rice, the chief food of the frugal Indian, abounds in most of the provinces. The varieties of that plant are reckoned twenty-seven in number. Rice in the husk is called *nellu*, and when shelled *arissi*. Tanjore, on the coast of Coromandel, supplies the whole island of Ceylon. Arrack, the spirit obtained from rice, is mentioned by the ancients. India also produces those species of grain which are most common in Europe—as wheat, barley, maize, and millet.

[n] Pennant's View of Indostan. [o] Tiefenthaler, I. p. 102.

Several species of *Holcus* are cultivated, as the *holcus sorgheum* of Linnæus, (the *Andropogon sorghum* of Dr. Roxburgh,) commonly called *tchor* and *dourra*, and the *Holcus spicatus*, or *badchera*, a common food among the people, particularly the Mahrattas. Our leguminous species, as peas, beans, lentils, together with many which do not grow in Europe, such as *moong*, (the *Phascolus mungo*,) *murhus*, (the *Cynosurus coracanus*,) the grain of which is small like mustard seed, and is used for cakes; *tanna*, a very productive grain, requiring little or no trouble in its cultivation; *tour*, (the *Cytisus cajan*,) which is sown at the beginning of the rainy season; and, lastly, *toll*, a shrub the produce of which is a sort of pea, and, next to rice, the most favourite food of seamen. Melons and pine apples are quite common; also the *lotus*, or sea lily: the roots of this plant are used in different ways. Its red flowers and round leaves, sprinkled with drops of water glittering like diamonds, adorn the surfaces of the pools. Instead of our potato, the Indian has the *katchil*, a root black on the surface, and white in the interior; the *igname*, which often weighs several pounds, and the *Arachis hypogœa* or *moogphully*.

Here the kingdom of Flora is arrayed in all her glory. Cashmere salutes the sense with the perfume of its roses, from which the highly valued ottar is obtained. The fine white rose, called *koondja*, scents the vales of Delhi and Serinagur [p]; the *kadtumaligu*, or large flowering jessamin; the *Banisteria bengalensis*, or atimuca, which is equally elegant; and the tchambaga, which the Indians use for adorning their hair, and perfuming their clothes. We must also particularize the *Mussænda*, which displays so fine a contrast of white leaves and blood-red flowers; the *Ixora*, which, from boughs six feet in height, exhibits its scarlet and yellow tufts of flowers, like so many bright flames, enlivening the foliage of the woods; the *sindrimal*, whose flowers open at four in the evening, and close at four

Flowers.

[p] Hardwick, in the Asiatic Register, 1800. Miscellan. Tracts, p. 270.

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in the morning; the *nyctanthes sambac*, with which the Indians perfume their hair before going to bed; the nagatalli or *Pergularia tomentosa*, which creeps along the walls, covering them over with its foliage,—a plant poisonous to the serpent tribe.

Plants used in the arts.

India produces many of those plants which are subservient to industry and commerce; as flax, hemp, tobacco, indigo, jalap, sarsaparilla, datura, cotton, anise, betel, saffron, sesamum, opium, many dyes, besides various reeds and canes. The hilly countries of Oude, and those at the foot of the Ghauts, produce large crops of cardamom; the best comes from the coast of Malabar; here also all kinds of pepper grow abundantly, so that the Arabians call it *Belad-el-folfol*, or the "pepper country." It is also produced in the island of Ceylon, in Bengal, and in Bahar. The *Papaver orientale*, from which the indolent natives obtain opium, thrives in almost all the provinces; the opium in most esteem is from Bengal and Bahar. The Indian sesamum furnishes an oil known to antiquity as an article of commerce. The cotton tree grows on all the Indian mountains, but its produce is coarse in quality; the herbaceous cotton prospers chiefly in Bengal, and on the Coromandel coast, and there the best cotton goods are manufactured. Next to these two provinces, Madure, Marawar, Pescaria, and the coast of Malabar, produce the finest cotton. The ancients seem to have got their muslins from the banks of the Indus, since they called them *Sindones*. India is the native country of the betel or tambol, a plant which, like the ivy and the hop, twines round trees and poles; its leaves are chewed along with areca nuts, spices, and tobacco.

Bamboo forests.

A great part of the soil of India is covered with forests of bamboo. This species of reeds, which sometimes attains a height of sixty feet, is an article of great use to the Hindoos in the erection of their slight habitations. The indurated juice of this plant called tabasheer, has been used in medicine, and in the eyes of the scientific, is a curious object as a vegetable secretion, being what chemists call a hydrate of silica, *i. e.* flint in union with conso-

lidated water [q]. Various other reeds, as the *Arundo calamus*, abound every where. The sugar cane, common through the whole of India, is cultivated in Bengal, particularly at Rajamundry and Grandjam [r], and a million of quintals of sugar are annually exported thence to Europe. Sugar. Indigo grows spontaneously in the province of Guzerat, and this plant is cultivated on a large scale in Bengal, Bahar, Oude, and Agra. A tree belonging to the genus *Nerium* has been discovered in the Circars, which yields a valuable blue dye [s]. Indigo.

India contains all the different species of palms, from which are obtained fruits, liquors, a sort of paper, oils, meal, cordage, and other useful articles. The cocoa tree is undoubtedly the most valuable of this tribe. The *jaggari*, or black sugar, obtained from the cocoa, is used at Tranquebar [t], at Madras [u], and in Pegu [x], to form, along with white of eggs, lime, and burnt shells, a cement which resists moisture and the solar heat, and is susceptible of a fine polish by friction. This cement has been successfully employed in Holland. The *Areca* nuts, the fruit of the cabbage palm, and bananas, are also to be added to the vegetable riches of India. The small fruited banana, or *Musa sapientum*, has in all ages been the food of the philosophers and the priests of Brahma. The Indian fig, or banyan tree, stretches its immense branches and its holy shade, not only over the pagodas, and the *choultries*, or caravanseras, but also over serpents and other venomous creatures,—an emblem of the eternal power of nature, which cherishes both useful and hurtful beings. It is a variety of the Budha tree, which is revered in the various countries between Indostan and China. Hence it is called by Linnæus the *Ficus religiosa*. Palms. The jaggari.

[q] See Dr. Brewster's optical experiments on this substance in the Philosophical Transactions.

[r] Roxburgh, Asiat. Register, 1800. Miscell. Tr. p. 7—15.

[s] See the Alfred newspaper, 24th May, 1811.

[t] Accounts of Danish Missionaries, II. p. 1050. III. p. 22. 241.

[u] Pipe in Phil. Trans. No. 422, Art. 3.

[x] Vincent Leblanc, Voyages I. p. 201 and 226.

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Fruit trees.

Our fruit trees, such as the apple, the pear, the plum, the apricot, peach, walnut, almond, orange, and mulberry, thrive in the north of India, while the southern parts abound in bread-fruit, guavas, jambos, and mangos; but the mangosteen of the Sunda islands cannot be reared even in Coromandel.

Forest trees.

Our tall forest trees, such as oaks, pines, cypresses, and poplars, as well as myrtles and tamarinds, are found in every part of the country. But the forests chiefly consist of species unknown to our climates, such as the teak, a hard and almost incorruptible timber, fitted to supply the place of the oak in ship-building, the *ponna*, (the *Uvaria altissima* of Kœnig, and the *Valeria indica* of the *Hortus Malabaricus*,) an ever-green which produces excellent masts; the *koru* or *sacoo*, a tree vaguely mentioned by Tiefenthaler as forming whole forests in the northern parts, and which, with the djissoo (a species of *Pterocarpus*) furnishes small building timber; the *Nagassa*, or iron wood, various *Robinias*, the azedarach, and other species less known. The

Ebony.

Indian ebony, extolled by Virgil, is found in the island of Ceylon, and according to some on the banks of the Ganges, at Allahabad [y]; yet it is probable that the ancients received their ebony from the eastern coast of Africa, then included under the name of India [z]. The agreeable odour which that wood is said to have diffused inclines us to doubt if it was obtained from the tree which we now call ebony. The

Gums.

red sandal tree, or dragon's blood, gum lac, and gamboge, grow in the Deccan and in Ceylon, also the *Guilandina moringa*, which produces a red gum. Among the species of laurel which abound in the southern part of the peninsula, and in Ceylon, we find those which produce mace, cassia, and camphor, and above all, the cinnamon tree, vainly claimed by Arabia as a native, on the testimony of the Greeks [a], and now transplanted from Ceylon to the nor-

[y] Ayen Akberi, II. p. 36.

[z] Voss, Commentary on Virgil, Georg. II. 116. IV. 290. Æneid, IV. 794.

[a] Beckman ad Antigonii Caristii, Histor. Mirab. p. 87, Id. Litteratur der Reisen, I. 562.

thern Circars [b]. Other trees of more diffusible fragrance perfume the forests, while they adorn them with their splendid blossoms. Such are the *Bignonias* and the *Pandanus odoratissima.*

Among the numberless treasures of a Flora imperfectly known, are some productions which were in high celebrity among the ancients, though now not found or not recognised with certainty. The number of dissertations written for identifying the true amomum is almost ridiculous [c]. We must not blame the indefatigable patience of the modern learned, but the vagueness and obscurity of ancient science. The Indian *Nard*, or spikenard, is probably the species of valerian known by the Hindoos under the name of *Jatamansi* [d], although there is a gramineous species figured and described as the true nard [e]. *Malabathrum*, the produce of a species of laurel, which was purchased by the Romans at a high price, was probably a compound extract of a number of plants with odoriferous leaves, such as the laurel called in Malabar *Tamala*, and the *nymphea* called *Tamara* in Sanscrit; the termination *bathrum* being from *patra*, the Indian word for a leaf. Perhaps further researches may discover more of the productions which were so highly prized by the ancients. The *Bdellium* of Pliny, probably a myrrh or odoriferous resin, was known to the author of the book of Genesis, under the name of *Bdolach* [f], and the *Sipachora*, the fruit of which conferred a longevity of 200 years, as Ctesias and Elian gravely assure us, may be known from a species of worm which burrows in it, and which furnishes a purple dye. Gum-lac is doubtless a production of the *Mimosa cinerea.*

Amomum.

Malabathrum.

Bdellium.

Sipachora.

[b] Tennant's View, I. 222.

[c] Breinius de Amomo Arabum, in the Miscell. Curios. medico-physic. 1681. Obs. 191. Salmas. Exercit. Plin. p. 283, &c.

[d] Sir W. Jones on the Spica Nardi in the Asiat. Researches.

[e] Philos. Transactions, 1790, vol. LXXX. p. 284.

[f] Plin. XII. 19, should be read Bdellium sive Bdolchon.

BOOK XLVI.

MINERALS.

Though the mineralogy of India has not been thoroughly explored, it is certain that in mineral wealth it is one of the richest countries in the world. The ancients say that

Metals.

the gold was heaped up by the ants in India. Whatever meaning we attach to such traditions, we find that the ancients are strictly correct when they speak of the auriferous rivers of this country[g]. The rivers of the Deccan, of Orissa, and of Berar, still carry down gold in considerable quantities. In the Punjâb and in Cashmere, the Ayen Akberi mentions several rivers with golden sand, a proof of the abundance of that metal in the great Imaüs. Mr. Fraser in his Highland Tour, mentions the Sutledge and other streams in its neighbourhood as at this day affording grains of gold, which are obtained by washing. Rich mines both of gold and of silver also occur in Golconda, the Carnatic, Assam, and Bengal. There are copper mines in the mountains of Kumaoon and in the provinces of Badrikshân, Agra, and Adjemere. Iron is found in almost every province of India. The kingdom of Assam is celebrated for its iron and steel mines. There are whole mountains of magnetic rock in the neighbourhood of Hoa in the province of Agra, from which a quantity of iron is extracted. The same countries which contain silver mines furnish also large quantities of lead, such as the kingdom of Assam, and the mountains of Kumaoon. Some mines of tin are worked near Zamvar, in the province of Adjemere, and in the Punjâb; zinc is quite common in India, and a quantity is exported to Europe. Quicksilver and antimony are found in a few places.

Diamonds.

In no part of the world are diamonds so numerous or so beautiful as in India, especially in the provinces of Bengal, Bundelkund, Allahabad, Orissa, Berar, Visapoor, Golconda, and the Carnatic. Those of Golconda and Orissa, especially those of Sumboolpoor on the banks of Mahanady, the river *Adamas* of the ancients, are considered as much superior to those of Parna in Allahabad.

[g] Tiefenthaler, I. 222—274.

Here also are found rock crystals, rubies, sapphires, amethysts, onyxes, and other precious stones. After heavy rains, the rivers detach them from the recesses of the mountains, and drag them along in their course. The Mahanady, or Cuttac, is one of the most remarkable for containing diamonds in its channel. One in the kingdom of Ghoorkha is mentioned as furnishing a great many [h]. Lapis lazuli, which, in its perfect form, is one of the most beautiful productions of nature, and which is with great probability, considered as the sapphire of the ancients [i], is chiefly found in the mountains on the north-west of India, the Hindoo Coosh and Beloot Tag. The Indian onyx, which was probably the *shoham* of the Jewish high priests, came from a chain of mountains mentioned by Ctesias, and which seems to correspond to the Bala Ghaut hills [k]. Almost every mountain in India contains quarries of marble and alabaster. Those of Adjemere contain white, black, and green marbles. Bahar is rich in alabaster. Rock salt is found in several mountains. In Adjemere, and on the coast of Coromandel there are large salt lakes. The Guzerat has plains covered with salt. In every quarter this useful article is carefully worked. Several provinces, especially Bahar and Bengal, furnish saltpetre, and a considerable quantity is exported to Europe, Tartary, and China. Sulphur, coal, naphtha, and other inflammable minerals, are found in several districts, both of Upper Indostan and the Deccan. Impregnations of sulphur, nitre, and other mineral substances, are said to be contained in some rivers, such as the Gunduk.

Precious stones.

The onyx.

The animal kingdom is equally rich in species as the two preceding.

Animal Kingdom.

[h] Gladwyn's Hist. of Indostan, I. p. 34.

[i] Baier, Dissert. de Sapphiro. Beckmann, History of Inventions, III. 182, &c. (in German.)

[k] Veltheim, Mémoire sur les Montagnes à onyx de Ctésias. Heeren, Idées sur la Politique, le Commerce, &c. 136—816. 2d edit.

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Monkeys.

Among the Mammalia are monkeys, which make their appearance every where in troops. On the coast of Malabar, thousands of them come to the very centre of the towns: they are of all species. Gibbons are found chiefly in Bengal, and on the Coromandel coast; the beautiful long-tailed maudis in the Deccan. There are tillows, vellakurangas, or little white monkeys; and koringurangas, or large black apes. Ourang-outangs are found in Bengal, in the Carnatic, and on the coast of Coromandel. The radjakada ape, with the red face and black beard, is, in the eyes of the superstitious Hindoos, a representative of their god Hanooman, the Indian *Pan*, who, having assumed that form, placed himself at the head of an army of monkeys, for the assistance of the god Rama, and materially contributed to the discomfiture of Ravan, king of the giants, and master of Ceylon[1]. It seems a certain fact that, in former times, monkeys, in consequence of the respect paid to them from superstitious impressions, peopled India in myriads. Alexander's army met with a body of them so enormously numerous that they took them for a hostile nation, and prepared to give them battle. In those places where the power is in the hands of the Brahmins, the Hindoos allow these animals the enjoyment of perfect liberty: hence they devastate the fields, plunder the orchards, and commit ravages in the heart of the towns. Those philosophers who maintain that animals are endowed with improveable intellects, though kept down by the human species, should tell us why the apes of Malabar, respected and caressed, have never contrived to found a political community.

Bats.

The southern provinces are infested with bats of all shapes and sizes. The most remarkable is the vampire, or flying cat, which often devastates the fruit trees of Guzerat, and the coast of Coromandel. Squirrels are equally destructive, especially the *malcannan*, which lives in flocks

1 Ramayana, an Indian poem, partly translated by Messrs. Carey and Marshman.

on the highest trees on the Malabar coast[m]; the large Indian squirrel, which attaches itself particularly to the cocoa tree; and the yellow squirrel, which lives in a gregarious state in the Guzerat. The Malabar coast produces many porcupines, one of which, the pangolin, is often kept tame in houses. In Bengal, and along the eastern shore, is found the two-toed sloth; and in Bahar there is a variety of this species which has a considerable resemblance to the bear, is called by naturalists *Bradypus ursiformis*[n], and lives on ants. BOOK XLVI.

India has several species of rats and mice, as the striped mouse, the musk rat, and the jerboa or jumping rat. These animals, numerous and bold, bid defiance to the cats. It is by dogs and professional rat-catchers that their breed is from time to time kept down. There are hares, rabbits, and martins, particularly in the northern provinces; civets of two varieties, badgers, racoons, *inungos* or ichneumons, which are capable of being tamed, and vigorously hunt the rats, the bats, and even the large serpents. Rats, mice, &c.

The mountain bear, more terrible than the tiger, and which inhabits the Ghauts, according to a tolerably well informed traveller, Paulin de S. Bartholomé, is perhaps a large hyæna: but the true bear makes his appearance in the forests of Oude, Orissa, the Carnatic, and Coromandel. Wolves are seen, particularly in the Ghauts, the Carnatic, Malabar, and Guntoor. The jackals are formidable in the interior of Indostan. The hyænas are very numerous in the kingdom of Orissa, and on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. Bengal produces a fox of a particular species, small in size, and possessed of great agility[o]. Bears, hyænas, &c.

Mr. Pennant, the Indian zoologist, has taken much pains to distinguish the different species of ferocious animals of the cat kind, that inhabit this country. Ceylon and Bengal have two varieties of the tiger-cat. The serwal, or panther-cat of the Deccan, which is little known, extends

[m] Sonnerat, Voyage aux Indes, tab. II. 87. Pennant, Indian Zoology, tab. I. View of Indostan, I. 137—202. [n] Pennant's View, II. 258—260.
[o] Pennant's Hist. of Quadrupeds, No. 170.

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as far as Thibet. The lynx lives in the northern provinces; the caracal, a black-eared variety of the lynx, makes his appearance in Bengal. This is also the true country of the royal tiger, known to the ancients by the name of the Ganges tiger. This formidable animal reigns in company with the rhinoceros on the marshy uninhabited extremity of the Delta of the Ganges, called the Sunderbunds. Here he even attacks the boats as they pass through his domain. Ceylon, and the Ghaut mountains, contain only the common tiger, the size of which is less majestic. The Asiatic panther of Pennant seems to be a variety of the tiger, with spots instead of stripes. The blackish variety, with black spots, is peculiar to Indostan [p]. The leopards, which have dark blotches on a white ground, vary considerably in size and colour. The ounce, which is the panther of Pliny, is found in all the central part of the Deccan, and in Guzerat. The guéparde of Buffon, the great *pardalis* of Oppian, is less known; it is called *tchita* [q]. After all the trouble which Mr. Pennant has bestowed on this subject, it is not yet entirely divested of obscurity.

Tigers, panthers, &c.

Is the lion found in India?

At present the lion, at least the African species, distinguished from the lion of Babylonia by his long mane, is unknown in India. But Terry says, he saw them in Malwah. From the old Indian writings, we are led to believe that the lion, called *singh*, was formerly spread over the whole of India.

Horses, and asses.

The Indians make little use of horses: the kinds peculiar to their country are the *tattoo* in Bengal, a very small horse, but an excellent runner [r]; the *goot* or *gunt* in the north of Indostan, and the *tchangley*, which comes from the province of Batty. The best horses to be seen in India are of foreign importation, chiefly from Arabia and Tartary. Asses and mules are not in general use. In the

[p] Pennant's View, II. 153.

[q] Pennant's Hist. Quad, No. 184. Synopsis, p. 174. tab. 18. fig. 1. View of Indostan, II. 246. Asiat. Reg. 1800." Misc. Tracts, p. 338—342.

[r] Solvyns, les Hindous, t. III.

north, and even in the Deccan, wild ones are found which have descended from the high lands of Thibet. The Hindoos, like the Europeans, attach an idea of extreme meanness to the use of asses for riding. The koolan and the djigghetai of Tartary travel down to pass the winter in the forests of India. Among the Indian dogs, those used in the chace were famous in antiquity: they hunted the wild boar, and even the lion and the tiger [s], and many of them were exported to Persia and Babylon. The best come from the north, and from Afghânistan [t]. Camels and dromedaries, the only beasts of burden in eastern countries, are found in great numbers in the Guzerat, in the neighbourhood of Patna and of Monghir, in Mooltan, and in Tatta. In this last province, the author of the Ayen Akberi saw flocks consisting of some thousands. The camel, with two humps, lives in a state of natural liberty in the northern provinces. Camels.

The Indian sheep is distinguished from the European race by his reverted horns, and the silkiness of his wool. This breed is found all over India, excepting towards the extremity of the peninsula. Ctesias was acquainted with the riches of northern India in the article of wool. When he assures us that the sheep of these countries were as large as the Grecian asses, and that they were employed as beasts of burden, he speaks of the sheep so common in Cashmere, and which the inhabitants call *hundoo* [u]. The true Cashmerian sheep, a delicate animal, furnishes the fine wool used in the manufacture of shawls. In Mooltan the *bhara*, or thick-tailed sheep, is also found, and the Thibet sheep, so highly prized for the quality of his wool. This precious article consists of the interior or shorter hair. In the kingdom of Assam, the rams have four horns. Finally, India contains also the Argali, or wild sheep, the *capra ammon* of Pennant [x]. The Guzerat and Cootch contain Varieties of sheep.

[s] Ælian, Hist. An. IV. c. 19. VIII. c. 1. compare with Heeren, Ideen. I. p. 818.

[t] Ayen Akberi, I. 303.

[u] In the German, Danish, Swedish, and English languages, *hund* (or hound) signifies a dog.

[x] Pennant's Hist. of Quadrupeds, p. 44. II.

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Goats, &c.

many goats, both wild and tame: the Cashmere goat furnishes very fine wool for shawls. In the mountains and forests of Orissa, Telinga, Berar and Malabar, the goat is met with from which bezoar is obtained, a morbid concretion formed in the intestines, presenting the appearance of a mineral, and valued in Asia for certain supposed medicinal qualities. Pigs and wild boars, stags and deer,

Antelopes.

make their appearance in great numbers. Flocks of antelopes are seen in Bengal, and the rest of India. Besides the species common to Persia and Tartary, we find the *nylgau*, or blue antelope with white feet, called also *ros* [y], and a small white species called *dirdhagen* by Mr. Gladwyn, the male of which has four horns, and reminds us of the four-horned *oryx* of the ancients [z]. The elk is frequently seen in the island of Ceylon; but it may be questioned whether it is the elk which we know, or merely a species nearly allied to it.

Oxen.

The ox and cow are treated with as much religious veneration in India as they were in ancient Egypt. Considered as the symbols of the productive energies of nature; emblems of the sun and moon; these living monuments of history and civilization are believed to attend the great god Chiva, and the goddesses Parvadi and Lakshmi, the one the Cybele and the other the Ceres of the Hindoos. The touch of a cow purifies the individual from all his sins. Only forty or fifty years ago, a king of Travancore, that he might make atonement for his cruelties, caused a colossal golden cow to be made, passed through the body of this image with the profoundest humility, and after this dated his edicts from the epoch of "his passage through the cow." This sainted species, which is very handsome in the Guzerat, Malwah, and Bengal, is distinguished from the European breed only by a fatty protuberance on the back. It is the zebu or *Bos Indicus* of naturalists. In Ceylon and in the neighbour-

[y] Hunter, Phil. Trans. 1771. Asiat. Reg. 1800. Miscell. Tr. p. 285. Pennant's Hist. of Quadr. No. 32.

[z] Ælian, Hist. Anim. XV. c. 14.

hood of Surat, there are oxen no larger than mastiffs[a]. The buffalo is spread over the whole of southern India. The *yak* is found in the most northern provinces. The animal which the Indians call the arni has more resemblance to the buffalo than to the urus; he is said to be six feet in height, with horns of enormous length, and lives among the Ghaut mountains and the Himālah.

The arni.

The great forests and the marshy districts are peopled with elephants. In the forests of the Ghauts there are flocks of two or three hundred. Those which are caught in the province of Tiperah and on the banks of the Brahmapootra are highly valued; but the most docile and handsome, though smaller in size, come from the island of Ceylon. These gigantic animals, once formidable in the field of battle, are now only employed to drag cannon and carry ammunition, to set heavy engines in motion, or to carry on their broad backs the purple tent where a nabob reposes on his gilded cushions, a being sometimes of inferior intelligence to the noble animal by which he is carried. Elephants are caught in large inclosures formed of strong poles, into which they are driven by the sound of drums and the glare of flambeaus, from which their fears make them retire; the animal is sometimes allured into these inclosures by means of a tamed female placed there. He is secured by closing the gates. Connected with this inclosed space is a long alley by which the animal is flattered with the prospect of making his escape, and here he is finally caught by means of beams laid across. He is now led forth bound, under the care of tamed elephants, who soon teach him to obey his masters[b].—The rhinoceros lives in Bengal, particularly in the islands at the mouths of the Ganges, where he is frequently seen in company with the tiger. The tiger finds in the herbage and underwood of the marshes the coarse aliment on which he lives,

Elephants.

Mode of catching.

The rhinoceros.

[a] Pennant, Hist. Quadrup. I. tab. 3.

[b] See the plate in Valentyn, oud and nieuw Ostindien, VIII. Beschryving van Ceylon, p. 47. Asiat. Researches, III. 229.

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while the rhinoceros seeks amidst mud and water a protection from the scorching heat: these savage animals are thus brought together by a union of physical circumstances, though they have no instincts for mutual association.

Serpents.

India swarms with serpents. They are found in the forests, in the plains, in the gardens, and even in the interior of the houses. Numerous are the species distinguished by Malabaric and Portuguese names. The most dreaded are the *cobra manilla*, a little blue serpent, one foot long; the *rubdira mandali*, a large serpent, the bite of which causes blood to proceed from the pores of the skin; and the *cobra de capello*, the *Coluber naja* of Linnæus, which is capable of being tamed, though its bite is so extremely dangerous. Paulin de S. Bartholomé seriously pretends that he saw serpents with two heads; they were amphisbænas, which have a head and a tail equal in size and of similar appearance, and which the Portuguese call *cobra de duas cabeças*. The royal serpent or *boa*, one of which, forty feet in length, was killed by M. Anquetil, is treated with divine honours. One of them, which resided in a grotto at Sumboolpoor, was within these few years consulted as an oracle [c]. Even the sea which washes the Indian shores is filled with hideous serpents, the bite of which is dangerous. There is a particular tribe of Indians that make the conjuring of serpents their trade, and teach these animals tricks of a most astonishing nature [d].

Worship of serpents.

Reptiles.

Almost all the rivers and even the lakes and marshes of Indostan, including the Deccan, give birth to crocodiles larger than those of Egypt, but in other respects scarcely differing from them. There is a smaller variety, which is particularly venerated as a consecrated animal [e]. They are sometimes maintained in the ditches of fortified places as contributing to their defence. Lizards are extremely

[c] Motte, in Asiat. Miscell. II. No. 1.

[d] Nouv. rapports des mission. de Halle, cah. 43, p. 648—656.

[e] Pennant's View, II. 207.

common in all the provinces. Among the Ghaut mountains there are some of prodigious size. The island of Bombay and some other places swarm with frogs and toads. Turtles are common on the sea-coasts and in the rivers. The best tortoise shell is from the Orissa shore.

Fish.

Such is the abundance of fish on the coast of Coromandel, Malabar, and other countries, that domestic animals, as pigs, dogs, and even horses, are fed on them. There are few European species that are not found in India: the most common are the salmon, the pilchard, the eel, the carp, and the tunny. The *mango*, (the *polynemus paradiseus* of Linnæus,) a beautiful sea-fish of an orange colour, ascends the Ganges. Shining multitudes of gold-coloured fishes adorn the surface of the waters. Here also is found that singular species, the flying fish, which, though capable of taking a temporary flight through the air, as well as of gliding through the water, is so persecuted by enemies in both elements, that his double faculty proves insufficient to secure him from their pursuit. The electrical torpedo and gymnotus sometimes give a shock to the unwary swimmer.

Insects.

In this warm climate the insects display a brilliance unknown in temperate zones: but they are often highly destructive. Here, as in some of the other countries which have fallen under our view, locusts sometimes settle in whole clouds on the devoted fields. Here many bees, almost all of them in a wild state, prepare a rich aromatic honey. The ants, black and white, form one of the severest scourges of the country. Spiders, large and small, scorpions, cray fish, butterflies of all colours, and silk worms, are to be numbered among the insects. But here, as in other countries, the insects exceed in the numbers of species the plants themselves, though we reckon the list of Flora somewhat formidable to those who attempt to recount or to remember the whole. The shells, the corals, and the polypi, present lists equally overwhelming, and far surpassing any such enumeration as could be admitted into the present work.

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Silk worms.

We may, however, remark, that the common silk worm, the *phalæna mori*, is not the only insect which provides the inhabitants of India, as it did those of the ancient Serica, with a valuable flax. There are other two species, the *phalæna atlas*, and the *phalæna ricini*[f], which give different kinds of silk, and were undoubtedly comprehended under the *bombyx* of the ancients. The fishery of cowries and of pearls will be described in another place.

Birds.

As for birds, it is in the north of India that the finest eagles, vultures, and falcons are found. They descend in pursuit of their prey from the same mountains from which India has been often visited by her ruthless conquerors. The griffin vultures and the bearded vultures are common in Siberia. The Mongolian princes keep multitudes of these animals for the purposes of falconry[g]. In the Deccan

Parrots.

there are more than fifty kinds of parrots. That bird, sacred in the eyes of the Brahmins, was in ancient times in great request among the Greeks and Romans, who borrowed from the Persians the names which they gave to it[h]. The rooks and ravens are, among the Hindoos, symbols of the human soul in a state of separation from the body, and are plenteously fed by the hand of superstitious charity. The *ardigigas* are believed to be inhabited by the souls of Brahmins. On the coast of Malabar, owls form flocks consisting of some thousands.

Peacocks.

India is the country of the peacock. The forests in every part of it are inhabited by enormous flocks of them in a wild state. But the turkey, according to the most received opinion, is originally from America. Yet this animal is called in German, the "cock of Calicut," and the question of its origin appears deserving of fresh examination[i]. In this country are found almost all

[f] Shaw's Naturalist's Miscellany, plate II. Sir W. Jones, Letter to Mr. Anderson.

[g] Ayen Akberi, I. 306.

[h] It is called *βιττακος* by Ctesias, from Bidak in Persian; and Psittacus is probably from Tedak or Tidak in the same language.

[i] Beckman, Litteratur der Reisen, I. p. 26—447—587.

the birds of our climates. Among those which are peculiar to it, are the *mango*, which lives on the fruit of the same name; the little bird of paradise, which is common in the Ghaut mountains and in Malabar; the white ibis, whose feathers are used in India in ornamental dress; the black-headed ibis, or butor; and the blue bird, called *porphyrio* by the ancients, and in the Malabaric language *pidaramkoli*. In all the forests bottle-shaped nests are seen suspended from the boughs by a slender thread, and vacillating in the wind. These are the abodes, as well as the ingenious workmanship of the *Loxia philippina*.

Were we to give a complete view of the physical features of India, we should far exceed the limits prescribed to the present work. We must therefore pass on from this copious subject to other details which the geographical reader is led more particularly to expect.

BOOK XLVII.

INDIA CONTINUED.

Topographical View of the Countries on the Indus and Ganges.

BOOK XLVII.

AFTER the account which we have given of the general geography of India, we must now take a view of its different provinces in succession. We shall first turn our attention to those which are watered by the Sinde and its tributaries, next to the Guzerat, and Adjemere, or the Rajepoot states; then proceed to the basin of the Great Ganges, and take a view of the regions watered by that river and its tributaries. This will occupy the present book. In the one following we shall take a view of the Deccan, or peninsula, and afterwards of the island of Ceylon and the Maldives.

In our account of Afghânistan, the empire of the king of Caubul, we included the territory on the west of the Indus, and at the mouth of that river, and also the valley of Cashmere, these being Indian provinces of that empire.

Province of Lahore.

We shall now begin with the province of Lahore, consisting of two parts, the one of which is the mountainous tract in the north-east, stretching south and east from Cashmere; and the other the flat country known by the

name of the Punjâb, a name sometimes applied to the whole province, and derived from the five celebrated rivers by which it is intersected, and which were described in the preceding book. Hence the climate of this province varies, the hills and northern parts having winters not unlike those of the middle of Europe. The mountainous tract, which includes the origin of four of the five rivers, (the other rising in Cashmere,) is rugged and thinly peopled. It contains several principalities, the chiefs of which are Rajahs of Hindoo descent, who, as well as their subjects, have adopted the Mahometan religion, but retain their Hindoo title. In manners and language the inhabitants resemble the Cashmerians, with a mixture of the more southern nations. Many pines grow on the face of the mountains, the resinous parts of which are cut into slips, and used as lamps, but the extraction of tar and turpentine is not practised. The climate of the northern parts seems unfavourable to fruits, being too hot for the Persian productions, and too cold for those of India. The mountains contain large beds of fossil salt. Their sides, where they are cultivated, produce wheat and other grains. They are cut into a succession of flat terraces, supported by buttresses of loose stones. A small quantity of rice is produced in the narrow valleys.

Hilly part.

The flat part of the province more properly called the Punjâb, is by far the most productive, but, except in the immediate vicinity of the rivers, it is much less fertile than Bengal, or even the British provinces in the higher parts of Indostan, the soil being of a sandy texture. Of the four divisions of the Punjâb, east of the Hydaspes, or Jylum, the two nearest to this river are quite flat, and chiefly pastured by herds of oxen and buffaloes, the cultivation is scanty, and the trees few; that which lies to the east, towards the Sutledge, has an undulated surface, and though naturally the most sterile, is the best cultivated. It contains many fine villages, and some large towns: but the latter, with the exception of Amritsir, the holy city of the Seiks, are in a declining condition.

The Punjâb.

BOOK XLVII.

The Seiks. Their history.

The Seik nation, which rules the greater part of this country, holds a conspicuous place among the inhabitants of India. The term Seik signifies a disciple. Their founder, Nanac, was born in an obscure station in a village to the north of Lahore, A. D. 1419. Devoted to a religious life, he became eminent as a teacher, inculcated a mild philosophic system, and endeavoured to connect the contending factions of Mahomedans and Hindoos, by fixing their attention on the great principle on which they were agreed, the unity and perfection of God, and making them view their external observances as comparatively insignificant. The worship of Brahma, Vishnu, and Mahadeva, the three chief divinities of the Hindoos, and the use of images, were rejected. When he died, others succeeded. One successor, Arjoonmal, distinguished himself by compiling the Adi-granth, or sacred book of the Seiks, and thus gave a consistent form and order to their religion, but he was treacherously put to death by the Mahometans. This event turned the thoughts of the Seiks to warlike objects. Hurgovind, his son, was a military priest, who urged the Seiks to vengeance, and headed them in a series of desperate attacks on the Mahometan chiefs in the Punjâb, which, however, were suppressed by the vigour of the Mogul government. The execution of Teg Bahadâr, a priest who lived in obscurity at Patna, by the Mogul government in 1675, gave a final turn to the destiny of the Seiks. Gooroo Govind, the son, eminent both as a preacher, an author, and a warrior, new-modelled the whole government of the Seiks, and converted them into a band of ferocious soldiers. Steel became the watchword of the state, and even the object of their worship. The supreme deity was denominated by them, "All Steel." This bold innovator extinguished all the distinctions of caste among his followers, urged them to unite in the career of military glory, and having collected them amid the mountains of Serinagur, rushed furiously down on the western provinces. He had, however, too potent an enemy in the celebrated Aurengzebe, was defeated, and his adherents dis-

persed, and he is said to have died insane in the Deccan.

After this they never again acknowledged any spiritual head. But, on the death of Aurengzebe, in 1707, they enrolled themselves under Banda, a military leader, committed dreadful ravages, and treated the places of worship and burial grounds of the Mahometans with every species of indignity. But they were again defeated and destroyed in great numbers, and Banda was put to death at Delhi with every species of insult and torture, which he endured with unshaken fortitude. After the expedition of Nadir Shah, they issued from their fastnesses, harassed his retreating rear, and plundered the baggage of his army; they now assumed an attitude of independence and defiance, and, after many contests with the Afghâns and Mahrattas, they have obtained possession of the Punjâb. Amritser is their spiritual capital, to which they resort in pilgrimage, and to reach which, while in possession of their enemies, they sometimes braved the danger of death. This is also the seat of their council, where the chiefs on some occasions meet to take oaths of union and mutual fidelity, on their sacred books the Granths. Notwithstanding this practice, they are generally in a state of dissension, and therefore unable to make head against a formidable enemy; so that they owe their possession of their present territory chiefly to the weakness and distraction which prevail among their neighbours, and the balancing management of British policy.

Present state.

The proselytes belonging to the Seiks are mostly from the Hindoos, who, on joining them, are permitted to retain all their former observances, in so far as they imply no positive infringement of the tenets of Nanak, and are very strict on the subject of diet and intermarriages. The Mahometan converts, on the contrary, are prohibited from following any of the observances of their original creed, are not allowed to practise circumcision, and are obliged to eat pork. The Seiks abstain from several of the sensual indulgences to which the Mahometans are addicted. They

Manners and character.

BOOK XLVII.

do not allow themselves the use of tobacco, but indulge in opium and spirituous liquors to great excess. They are a well made people, and have the countenance of Hindoos, though distinguished from them by their long beards. They have all the activity of the Mahrattas, to which they unite a greater degree of bodily strength, derived from their more favourable climate. They are very courageous, and when animated by religious fanaticism, quite desperate. Their mode of address is bold and somewhat rough; their habitual tone of voice loud and bawling. Their language is chiefly Hindostanee, with a slight intermixture of Persian. Their conduct towards women resembles that of the Hindoos and Mahometans, but is somewhat more relaxed. They prohibit the self immolation of widows on the death of their husbands; though some of their women so far break the law as to take an opportunity for committing suicide when they become widows. Their chief military force consists of cavalry. They use matchlocks and sabres, entertaining for the latter weapon a veneration almost religious. One soldier often keeps a plurality of horses. On these they set a high value, and entertain for them sentiments of affection. When one of their companions dies, they rather express joy than grief; but cry bitterly on the loss of a horse. Their force, at the end of the last century, was said to amount to 248,000[a], but this must have been an enormous exaggeration. They used to boast that they could raise 100,000 horse; but it is not practicable to bring every horseman belonging to them into the field. Runjeet Singh is the only Seik chief who can bring forward 4000 effective men; and even this prince's force did not, in 1805, amount to 8000. He has subjugated almost all the country north of the Sutledge, while those to the south are under British protection.

Population and trade.

The Lahore province includes a territory of 70,000 square miles, but the population probably does not exceed four millions. There is now scarcely any regular trade between

a Franklin, History of Shah 'Alum, p. 75.

this country and the rest of Indostan; but petty merchants can generally obtain passports through the Seik territories, and a trifling commerce is in that manner carried on. The exports to Afghânistan and Persia are sugar, rice, indigo, wheat, and white cotton cloths: the imports are swords, horses, fruit, lead, and spices. From Cashmere they import shawls, cloths, fruits, and saffron. Commerce is much obstructed by heavy duties, though of late greater encouragement than formerly is given to it.

Revenue.

The chiefs generally claim one half of the land produce; but they treat the cultivators with great indulgence, and this revenue is seldom levied to the full extent.

City of Lahore.

The chief city in this province is Lahore, the capital of Runjeet Singh. It is situated on the south side of the river Ravey, on the great road bordered with plane trees which leads from Delhi to Afghânistan. It has lost much of its ancient splendour, but still contains fine buildings and elegant gardens, though its liableness to warlike reverses has deterred wealthy individuals from residing in it. It contains the beautiful fortified palace of the ancient Mogul sovereigns, one of the finest and most sumptuous in the world. It was founded by Akber, and greatly enlarged by his successors. When beheld from the opposite side of the river, with its varied terraced gardens, it looks like a scene of enchantment, suited to the ideas formed of the palace of Semiramis, or of one of the fairies of the Arabian tales. The terraced roofs are adorned from one end to the other with a thousand species of the finest flowers native to a country which is the abode of eternal spring. The interior of this magnificent building is ornamented with gold, lapis lazuli, porphyry, and fine-grained red granite. The hall where the throne is placed, and its gallery, are most of all admired,—the walls and ceiling being covered with fine rock crystal, and a trellice of massive gold running along, adorned with figures of grapes executed in pearls and precious stones, vying with one another in brilliance. The bathing room contains a bath in the form of a boat, which made of oriental agate, adorned with plates

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of gold; this used to be filled with eight hogsheads of rose water. Across the river, and two miles north from Lahore, at Shah Durra, stands the celebrated mausoleum of Jehangheer, within a wall of nearly 600 yards square.

Runjeet Singh.

Runjeet Singh, the chief who resides at Lahore, well skilled both in war and intrigue, has, between the years 1805 and 1812, subjugated almost all the Rajahs of the Punjâb, and now rules the country with considerable mildness, maintaining a good understanding with the British authorities, of whose intentions he has been taught by experience to entertain no apprehension; very different from the Ghoorkas of the more easterly parts, who, by their oppressions, rendered themselves odious to the tribes which they subdued, and brought down on themselves the repressing hand of British power.

North-west parts.

Several parts of this country, adjoining the Afghân territory, are more or less subject to the Afghân power, such as Puckely in the north-west corner, the *Peukelaotis* of the ancients, containing some of the descendants of the troops left in it by Timour as a garrison. North of this is Turnaul, inhabited by the Swaties; and Muzzifferabad, a town belonging to the Mahometan tribes of Bumbas and Cukkas, whose country forms the line of communication between Caubul and Cashmere. The valley and district of Chuch, at the north-west corner of Lahore, is inhabited by Mahometan Hindoos, named Goochers. Near this is the Afghân fortress of Attok, which derives its name from a prohibition under which the Hindoos lie, against crossing the river under the penalty of degradation. It was here that Alexander, Tamerlane, and Nadir Shah entered India with their armies. Hussein Abdaul is a beautiful valley on the eastern border of Chuch. It has its name from that of a devout saint whose tomb it contains. Rawil Pindee is a large and populous Seik town, sixty-eight miles east, consisting of handsome terraced houses. Here a kind of native newspapers, detailing the transactions of the neighbouring princes, and called the north-western Akbars, are usually dated, but they are careless and idle miscellanies, of no authority whatever.

Between the Indus and the Jylum, the whole country was once in possession of the Goocher tribe, who occasioned much trouble both to the Moguls and the Afghâns, but have been expelled by the Seiks, though they still retain a high military reputation. Their country abounds in grapes. At Manicyala, one of their villages, there is a solid building resembling a cupola, seventy feet high and 150 paces in circumference, situated on the top of a high mound. The natives maintain that it was built by the gods. In architecture it approaches to the Grecian style, and has nothing of the Hindoo character. Leia is the name of a town and district near the southern part of the Sinde Sagor, or the Doab[b] bounded by the Indus and Jylum, belonging to the Afghâns. This Doab, in general, is divided between that power and the Seiks: the former possesses the district nearest to the rest of their territory.—The Doab bounded by the Jylum and the Chenâb, belongs to the Seiks, and is not much known.—The next, called Doabeh Rechtna, bounded on the east by the Ravey, is fertile and extensive, and its population greater than that of the preceding, containing some towns of note, as Bissolee, a fortified town, belonging to Runjeet Singh, Vizierabad, and Eminabad. The Doabey Barry (from *Bari*, a residence,) comprehending the low countries between the Ravey and the Beyah, forms the centre of the Seik power, as it contains the cities of Lahore and Amritsir.

The different Doabs.

Ancient monument.

Amritsir, formerly called Ramdaspoor, derives its present name (signifying "the pool of immortality") from a basin of 135 paces square, built of burned brick, in the centre of which is a temple dedicated to Gooroo Govind Singh. (Singh signifies a lion, an appellation which the Seiks, and especially their chiefs, adopted when they assumed the character of determined warriors.) It was a very ancient city, under the name of Chak, and was greatly enlarged by Gooroo Ramdas, who built the famous re-

Amritsir.

[b] *Doab* is a term applied in India to any tract of land situated between two rivers above their point of junction.

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servoir of Amritsir. Ahmed Shah twice destroyed the temple, and threw dead cows into the water to pollute it. Here Runjeet Singh has a mint where coins are struck in the name of the great saint and founder of the Seik sect, Nanak. The town is unwalled, the streets narrow, the houses well built, but divided into narrow apartments. It is the chief emporium of the shawls and saffron of Cashmere, and the various commodities which come from the south and east of India. A few coarse cloths and inferior silks are manufactured in the place. Being the resort of many rich merchants, and the residence of bankers, it is a place of considerable opulence[c].—The Doabeh Jallinder, the tract included between the Sutledge and Beyah, and bounded also by the mountainous district of Cahlore, is of small dimensions, but of great political consequence, being the only road by which the territory of Delhi can be entered by an army from the west. It is circumscribed by the mountains on one hand, and the desert on the other. It is under the dominion of Runjeet Singh, who holds the Doabeh Singhs in subjection. It is the most fertile portion of the Seik territory, and scarcely inferior to any province of India. Jallinder is its chief town, formerly a residence of the Afghâns, and still inhabited by their descendants, subject to the Seiks. It contains also Noorpoor, a town situated on the top of a hill which is ascended by stone steps.

Hill territory.

The Kohistan (or hill country) of Lahore contains some small independent states, as Kishtewar, the name of which signifies woody, and which is intersected by the Chenâb. Jambo is sometimes tributary to the Seiks, but has a Rajah of its own. The town of that name was once a place of great and well regulated commerce.—Khangra is a fortress which Akber besieged for a whole year, commanding in person, before he succeeded in reducing it. The Khangra country is productive in rice, corn, and maize. Here the progress of the Ghoorkas of Nepâl, after the taking of Serinagur, was arrested to the westward. It

[c] Sir John Malcom, Asiat. Regist. vol. X.

was defended by its own Rajah, who, however, afterwards submitted to the power of Runjeet. The city of Khangra, called also Nagorkot, is ancient, and contains a magnificent temple, to which, in the months of September and October, a great number of pilgrims from every part of India resort.—Cooloo is a country bordering on the Sutledge, the Rajah of which assisted in the war of the British against the Ghoorkas, but he was obliged in the settlement to cede some places to the east of the Sutledge, which he had wrested from that power.

Mooltan.

Mooltan is the lowest part, or angle of the Doab formed by the Sutledge, the Ravey, and the Chenâb. This is the country of the ancient *Mallcs*. At present it is not much known to Europeans. The city of Mooltan, four miles from the left bank of the Chenâb or *Acesines*, which has previously received the Ravey or *Hydraotes*, and the Jylum or *Hydaspes*, is inclosed by a good wall, defended by a citadel on a rising ground, and adorned with several beautiful tombs. It is noted for its silks, and a species of carpets much inferior to those of Persia. The soil of the country is rich and well cultivated. It contains many ruinous villages, and has on the whole an aspect of decay: but the greater part is still irrigated by means of Persian wheels. This country is unfortunate in a frequent change of masters, who devastate and pillage it in succession. In 1818 it was taken by Runjeet, who probably still holds it.

Bahawulpoor.

Bahawulpoor is a principality of considerable extent, the strongest place of which is Derawul, which owes its power of resistance in cases of invasion to the sterility of the surrounding sands. Ooch is a town in this principality, situated at the place where the Sutledge flows into the stream formed by the junction of the four upper rivers, to complete the Punjnud which carries the waters of the whole Punjab into the Indus. Elphinstone says, that the Punjnud flows into the Indus at Ooch, but it is probable that in the dry season that confluence takes place much

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lower down. Ooch must have been of more importance in former times than it is now, as it gives name to an Indian dialect considered as distinct, though akin to the Bengalese and Hindostanee.

Sinde.

Sinde, being tributary to the Afghân sovereign, has already, in some measure, come under our notice, and the nature of the country has also been described in the preceding Volume[d]. Its boundaries are Mooltan and Afghânistan on the north, Cutch and the sea on the south, the sea and Baloochistan on the west, and Adjemere on the east. To the east of the Indus it is quite level. It carries on a considerable commerce with the adjoining parts of India, but nothing approaching to what it did in former times, and it has greatly declined under the present rapacious rulers, the Ameers. These belong to the Sheeah sect of Mahometans, but are tolerant both to heretics and to infidels. The population consists chiefly of Hindoos, Juts, (or converted Hindoos,) and Belooches. The Sinde has declined greatly in population and fertility. An extraordinary number of tombs and burial grounds are scattered over districts now in the state of deserts. Some of the best of the soil is appropriated in large tracts as hunting ground by the Ameers, who are passionately fond of that amusement. The country swarms with military adventurers, and furnishes mercenaries for the infantry of the native Indian powers. The army of the Ameers amounts to 36,000 cavalry. The territory contains many wretched mendicants, and also a set of proud and arrogant beggars, who pretend to be descendants of the prophet.

ties.

Hyderabad is the modern capital. The fortress stands on a rocky hill on the margin of the Fulalee branch of the river, and possesses great natural strength; some handsome mosques are contained in it. *Tatta*, higher up the Indus, was formerly the capital of Sinde. Here the old English factory still stands, and is the best house in the whole province. The surrounding soil is rich, but the

[d] Vol. II. p. 352.

city is miserably decayed, though once a flourishing place. It is mentioned in Mahometan history as early as the year 92 of the Hegira, or A.D. 677. Dr. Robertson supposes it to be identical with the ancient *Pattala.*

Chinganes. Conjectures on the origin of the gypsies.

The Chinganes, a predatory horde who live near the mouth of the Indus, have been supposed by some modern authors to be the original stock of those bands of wanderers known in Europe under the names of Zingarians, Bohemians, and Gypsies, who excite a mingled feeling of horror, curiosity, and even tenderness, by the abject lives which they lead in the bosoms of forests, their skill in a few trades, their indolence, their noisy mirth, their wild dances, and their pretended knowledge of futurity. We are told that some of them call themselves *Sintes.* The Persians call them black Hindoos. In their language, though little known, there have been found a hundred words common to it with the Hindoo languages of Mooltan and Bengal[e]. Pallas found the Indians who visited Astrachan to speak a language which had many words in common with that of the Zingarians or Gypsies of the Russian Ukraine[f]. Another traveller, Paulin de St. Bartholomé, has compared the dialects of Tatta and the Guzerat with that of the Bohemians of Italy and Hungary[g]. Some have even fixed the epoch of their emigration as coinciding with that of the ravages of Tamerlane. It was just half a century after this that the wandering Bohemians attracted notice in Europe. This hypothesis has been ably elucidated[h], and is received by many of the learned; but not by all. Some have attempted to shew that the *Sigynnes* of the Danube, known to Herodotus[i], or the *Sindi* of the Cimmerian Bosphorus, were the ancestors of our modern Gypsies[k]. Others

[e] Adelung's Mithridate, I. p. 244, &c.

[f] Neue Nordische Beytraege, III. 96.

[g] M. Alter on the Sanscrit, p. 172.

[h] Grellman's Historical Essay on the Zigeunes. Richardson, in the Asiatic Researches, No. VII.

[i] Σιγυναι, Herod. Σιγιννοι, Strab. Σιγυμνοι, Orph. Σιγυννοι, Apoll. Rhod.

[k] Hasse on the Zigeuns of Herodotus, a German work, published at Koenig berg, 1803.

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lay great weight on some Coptic words found in use among the Zigeuns[l], and on the term gypsy, (or Egyptian), applied to them in England. Others lean to the opinion of the Turks, who consider the *Zinguri* of Cairo and Constantinople as having come originally from Zanguebar in south-eastern Africa[m]. At all events, the great number of Indian words which they use shews some ancient connection with Indostan.

Chalchkân.

Chalchkân is a country once considered as a desert, from never having been explored, but now found to contain many cultivated spots, with small chiefdoms, and fixed tribes. On the north, it is bounded by the province of Adjemere; on the south by the great salt morass called the Runn, which separates it from Cutch, on the west by Sinde, and on the east by the province of Guzerat; it lies chiefly between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude. The most powerful chiefs in this tract of country are the Beloochee Kosahs, who settled in it about forty years ago, and are named Siryes by the aboriginal inhabitants. They are a set of sanguinary thieves, who infest the whole neighbourhood to great distances, moving in bands from 100 to 500 strong. They are originally from Sinde, and to that country they carry their dead for interment.

Cutch.

Between Sinde on the west and the Guzerat on the east, lies the province of Cutch, along the sea-shore, 140 miles long and 95 broad. Its geographical position is rather singular. The hilly portion is not deficient in fertility and verdure, and is productive wherever the government gives due tolerance to the industry of the cultivator. The interior is studded with hills mostly covered with wild jungle, where the chiefs have their strong holds and dens, and from whence they either plunder or protect the intervening valleys, as best suits their purpose. The greater part

[l] *Romi* is the word for men, both in Coptic and the Zingar, or Gypsy language.

[m] A manuscript note of M. Paultre.

of the province, however, is poor and barren, and the rains uncertain. The most material part of the cultivation consists of three crops obtained by irrigation. In some seasons water is extremely scarce, and carried from great distances. The chiefs boast of their independence, and no country can well be more impracticable for an invading army. The villages are all fortified, and some in a very respectable manner. Female infanticide has long been common, and probably still is so in this province. Prior to 1800, the number of infants annually destroyed among the Jareiah tribes was supposed to be 2000. Other accounts made it much larger. The government of Cutch is extremely unsettled. The Raja or Row, has of late years been superseded for the cruelty and absurdity of his conduct, which had excited universal dissatisfaction. Some interference took place on that occasion on the part of the British, who sent a force from Bombay which reduced Bhoodje the capital. This territory being inhabited by a warlike race, fond of independence, but unambitious of conquest, is considered as a strong defence on the frontiers of the British possessions against the restlessness of the Sindeans on the north, whose attempts to enter Cutch have been steadily opposed by British diplomacy. The Mahometan religion has been, and probably still is, making great progress in this part, and the Hindoo worship seems likely, in no long time, to disappear. The Runn forms a remarkable feature in the physical geography of Cutch, being a salt marsh of 8000 square miles, bounding that territory on the east. Its breadth varies from five to eighty miles across, between Cutch and Guzerat. It is said to be formed by the overflowing of the river Puddar and the Gulf of Cutch, probably chiefly, if not wholly, by the former, as in December, during the dry season, it is quite dry, and in most places hard. It is a dead flat, totally devoid of verdure and vegetation, strewed with dead prawns, mullets, and other fish, and frequented by large birds. On the Cutch side it is visited by apes and porcupines. On the opposite, the incrustations resemble snow. In the dry season it has been crossed

Infanticide.

The Runn morass.

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by armies and embassies. The banks of the Runn are frequented by wild asses in droves of sixty and seventy at a time. Bhoodje, the capital of Cutch, is a place of considerable strength, both natural and artificial. Mandavie is the principal sea-port, possessing an excellent harbour, and maintaining an extensive trade. Anjar is a small district of Cutch, which was ceded to the British in 1816. It is in contemplation to form a number of tanks here for extending the cultivation of the country. There is a general law always observed in Cutch, that every person who chooses to sink a well is entitled to the possession of the whole unoccupied land which it is capable of irrigating. The capital, Anjar, was garrisoned by 300 Arabs, when it was taken in 1816 by the detachment of Colonel East. Janagoor, is a town with a strong citadel, placed by Rennel on the river Banâs, which runs in a course parallel to that of the Puddar, both being nearly dry, except in the rainy season.

Guzerat.

The extensive province of Guzerat—320 miles long and 180 broad—is chiefly situated between the 21st and 24th degrees of north latitude; and is bounded on the north by the province of Adjemere; on the south, by the sea and the province of Aurungabad; on the east, by Malwah and Kandesh; and on the west, by portions of Sinde, Cutch, and the sea. A considerable portion of this province in the interior is hilly, and much covered with jungle, which is encouraged by the inhabitants as a protection from invaders. Within these places, however, dwell many tribes of professed thieves, a great proportion of whom are cavalry, and extend their depredations to a great distance. The coasts of the peninsular portion of Guzerat abound with creeks and little inlets, which, by furnishing shelter from cruizers, by reason of their difficult navigation, are particularly adapted to the encouragement of piracy. This province is traversed by several noble rivers, as the Nerbuddah, Tuptee, Mahy, Mehindry, and Sabermatty, but in many places a scarcity of water is experienced. In the

sandy soil to the north of the Mahy river, the wells are from 80 to 100 feet deep. The country is very much intersected by ravines, and broken up by the rains, the chasms being converted into rapid rivers in the rainy season. The soil in general is fertile but little improved. The districts possessed by the British are very improveable, but their improvement has been greatly retarded by the contests which have, till lately, been maintained with the neighbouring states. Here the baubul tree yields a gum by exudation, which is used as food by the poor inhabitants of the jungles. This province exhibits a vast variety of sects, castes, and customs. The Grassias are a numerous class of ambiguous landholders, belonging to no particular caste or race otherwise distinct. Their claims are considered as oppressive and vexatious, as well as dubious in their origin, resembling the black mail once existing in Scotland, a demand in compensation for a forbearance in plunder. These demands are prosecuted by menacing means in defiance of any fixed law. The Coolies are a most untameable race of plunderers, who delight in blood and nastiness, and despise every approach to civilized habits. They live chiefly on the river Mahy. The persons called Bhatts, a sort of religious order, abound most of all in Guzerat. Some are cultivators of the land, most of them are keepers of records, beggars, or itinerant bards. Some of them become securities in the money transactions of others. Allied to these are the Charons, a sect of Hindoos, who possess great droves of animals of burden, by which they carry on a distant traffic. Charons and Brahmins engage to protect travellers. When those under their protection are threatened, their plan is to take an oath to die by their own hands in case their protegé is pillaged, and in such veneration are they held by these robbers that this threat is almost in every case sufficient to restrain them. The Bhatts formerly acted as securities between the Mahratta government and its subjects, the one demanding Bhat security for the payment of the revenue, and the other the same against the oppressive treatment of the ruling powers.

Different classes of the population.

The Grassias.

Bhatts.

Charons.

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Ungreas.

Here, as in other parts, are Ungreas, or money carriers, who conceal in their clothes the money committed to their charge. They are persons of athletic strength, well armed, and, though miserably poor, are entrusted with large sums with perfect security. The Dheras or Pariahs are a degraded caste, employed in the vilest work, and obliged to live in huts separated from the rest of society. The other Hindoo castes also exist here as in the rest of India, though under different appellations. The sect of Jains is more numerous than in any of the adjoining countries, and they have many beautiful temples with well wrought images of stone and metal.

Parsees.

Their history.

Besides its native tribes and castes, Guzerat contains nearly all the Parsees of India, the remains of the followers of the Persian Zoroaster. When the Mahometan religion gained the ascendency in Persia, they retired to the mountains of their own country, where they remained till the overthrow of the monarchy, and the death of Yezdigird, their last sovereign. Finding themselves treated as outlaws, they wandered towards the port of Ormuz, then governed by a branch of the old royal family, where they resided fifteen years, and they learned ship building and navigation. After this they repaired to the isle of Diu in this part of India, where they remained nineteen years; then, becoming too numerous for so confined a place, they sought a wider habitation, by going to the Guzerat, where they were favourably received at Seyjan by Jadu Rana, a Hindoo prince. Here they first lighted up the sacred fire. Afterwards many of them settled in various other places in this quarter of India, such as Surat and Bombay, where they have increased rapidly in numbers. After their voluntary dispersion, the Seyjan chief requested their assistance in opposition to the Sultan of Ahmedabad, a bigoted usurper, who about A.D. 1450, detached an army of 30,000, to levy tribute from him. About 1400 Parsees joined the chief on this occasion, and beat the Mahometan Sultan in the first instance, though he afterwards gained his object. This is the only political or military

transaction in which the Parsees have been engaged during 1000 years that they have resided in India. They have, since that time, lived in different communities, along the coast, from Diu to Bombay. Their modern population is divided into two grand classes, the Mobid, or clerical class, and the Behdeen, or laity. A Mobid may marry a Behdeen female; but Behdeens are not allowed to take wives from Mobid families. They often bring up other people's children, and admit them among the Behdeens; and sometimes they admit adult proselytes, where they can place confidence in their adherence to the laws of Zoroaster. These last adoptions, however, are rare. The Parsee females are, by the laws of their religion, placed on an exact equality with the men, and have long maintained a character for unspotted chastity. The children, like those of the Hindoos, are betrothed between the ages of four and nine, and the marriage takes place within the ninth year of the girl's age. If a betrothed girl dies, the guardians of the boy look out for a girl who has, in like manner, lost her intended husband. Among adults, widowers only marry widows. They employ a dog to watch the corpse of a dead person, believing firmly that dogs see aerial beings which are invisible to men, and keep them off by their howlings. They have a great dislike to touch a dead animal, and especially a hare. They have adopted the dress and many of the customs of the Hindoos, and have forgot their own language for that of their present country. Very few think of studying the language or antiquities of their own nation. At present, the young men of their best families are taught to read and write the English language. The opulent among them are merchants, shipowners, and land-holders; the inferior classes are shopkeepers, and exercise such mechanic arts as are not connected with the use of fire; but the manufacture of metals is not practised by any among them, nor do they become soldiers or sailors, as the use of fire-arms is contrary to their religious precepts. At Bombay, many of them act

Customs.

Employments.

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as interpreters and domestic servants to Europeans. The clerical tribe is distinguished by white turbans, but they follow all kinds of occupations, only a few of them being selected for the performance of religious ceremonies. Some of them read and write the Zend or Pehlevi character, but their knowledge is extremely superficial. The Parsees, devoted to the pursuits of commerce, are not addicted to any kind of literature. A recent innovation respecting the commencement of their new year has occasioned a separation of this ancient and long united people into two sects, the one celebrating the new year and their other religious festivals a month later than the other. The places in which they are at present collected in greatest bodies are Diu, Cambay, Broach, Oclaseer, Hansoot, Verion, Surat, Nowsarry, Damaun, Bombay, and Urdwara. This last place is the chief residence of their priests, and the depository of the sacred fire which they brought from Persia. In their original country, they have been reduced by persecution to a small number, who are chiefly collected in the city of Yezd, where they occupy about 4000 houses. These also are a very industrious race, but much oppressed by the Persian government, paying a poll-tax of twenty piastres, and subjected to perpetual extortions of other kinds[n].

The Borahs.

There is a singular race in this part of India called Borahs, professing the Mahometan faith, who have Jewish features, and form every where a distinct community, noted for frugality and address in bargaining. Boorampoor in Khandish is their chief place, and the residence of their head Moollah. They go about as itinerant pedlars in Guzerat and the adjacent provinces.

Industry.

There are numerous manufacturing looms in this province, all the castes, excepting Brahmins and Banyans, occasionally following the occupation of weaving. The Surat manufactures are famed for their excellent quality and mo-

[n] A full account of their religious creed is given in Malcolm's History of Persia.

derate price. The trade of this province is far from being equally flourishing as under the Mogul government, even in its most turbulent periods.—It is the custom, when a merchant finds his affairs involved, to set up a blazing lamp in his shop or office, and abscond till his creditors have examined his property. Till such time as he has obtained his discharge, he wears the tail of his waist-cloth, not hanging down as usual, but tucked up. Persons who adopt these steps in good time, so as not to do their creditors much injury, are greatly esteemed, and often become subsequently more prosperous than they could have otherwise been; hence some have even set up the bankrupt light without necessity, with a view to the future patronage of the public. Guzerat is very thinly peopled in some parts, as the north-west; in others, as about Surat, it is extremely populous. The people live in village groups for security, whereas on the Coromandel coast, the dwellings are detached. The horrid practice of female infanticide was lately very prevalent among the Jarejah tribe, to which the chiefs of the Guzerat peninsula belong; but the British authorities at Bombay have exerted themselves to suppress it, so that it is not now openly practised. Another crime of common occurrence was one which went under the name of Jhansa, consisting in writing threatening letters, and destroying the property of others, in order to enforce compliance with some unjust demand. This is now becoming less common and less violent, from the regularity with which civil justice is administered [o].

Customs in cases of bankruptcy.

Guzerat was first invaded by Mahmud of Ghiznee, about A.D. 1025. It was subject to the Mogul power for many years. In the fifteenth century it became independent under a dynasty of Rajepoot princes, who had embraced the Mahometan faith. It was again reduced by Akber in 1572. After the death of Aurengzebe, in 1707, it was overrun by the Mahrattas, and in a few years finally se-

Revolutions and present state of Guzerat.

[o] Forbes's Oriental Memoirs. Hamilton's Description of Hindostan, vol. I, p. 604.

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vered from the Mogul throne. At present the more civilized parts are possessed by the British, who occupy a considerable tract on both sides of the Gulf of Cambay, including the populous cities of Surat, Broach, Gogo, Cambay and Bhownugger. The sea coast from this to the Gulf of Cutch is in the hands of several petty chiefs, some subject to the Guicowar, and others independent, addicted to piracy, but now restrained by the British, who have a detachment of the Bombay army cantoned at Palyad, in the west of the Guzerat, for that purpose.—The district of Puttunwar in the north-west, is thinly inhabited, and not thoroughly explored. —Neyer, adjoining to it, is remarkable for its fine horses. —There is a district at the mouths of the rivers which flow into the Runn, called Jutwar, being in a particular manner the country of that description of people called the Juts, who also exist in Sinde and the Punjâb. They are of Hindoo extraction, but converted to the Mahomedan religion. They are professed and determined plunderers, yet industrious among themselves, and some of their settlements are remarkably populous. The Jut women exercise an influence over the men which is rare among Mahomedans. A woman can, when she chooses, leave her husband, and marry another. When she wishes to take such a step, she persecutes him, assisted by her female acquaintance, till he acquiesces in a separation. Being much respected by the men, the Jut women sometimes act in the capacity of protectors to persons and their property.

Jutwar, and the Juts.

Peninsular projection.

It is the peninsular part of this province that forms its leading geographical feature, being the only lateral projection of any considerable size, by which the smooth outline of the extensive coast of India is diversified. Its length, from east to west, is 190 miles, its breadth 110. It is sometimes called the Cattywar, a name given to it by the Mahrattas, probably in consequence of having been first opposed there by the Catties, one tribe of its inhabitants. It has several small rivers. The mountains are few and not high. The loftiest of those called the Junaghur hills is sacred. The

Catties, Jarejahs, and some other tribes in this quarter are a sort of imperfect Hindoos, believing in the Brahminical legends. They worship the sun, are superficially acquainted with the doctrines of their professed creed, and relaxed in the observance of its rules of diet and other peculiarities. The practice of female infanticide, which prevails among them, arises from the difficulty of finding husbands for all their daughters, because they will not marry them to any except the respectable castes of Hindoos. The illegitimate daughters are not put to death, because they can be married to persons of impure caste, or to Mahometans indiscriminately.. The self immolation of women is also common; and it is remarkable that it is far more frequently done by concubines on the funeral piles of their lords than by wives on those of their husbands. Doaraca, a small island, is a place of peculiar sanctity in this quarter, containing a temple much resorted to by pilgrims, who, among other ceremonies, go through that of receiving a stamp on their bodies with a hot iron, on which are engraved the shell, the ring, and the lotos flower, the insignia of the gods. This privilege costs a rupee and a half, or about three shillings. It is frequently impressed on infants. A pilgrim, besides his own stamp, sometimes has his body stamped for the benefit of an absent friend. From this place, the chalk is taken with which the Brahmins mark their foreheads all over India; it is reputed to have been deposited there by the god Krishna. Numerous ridiculous fables are connected with the same locality. The district of Soreth at one time comprehended a large proportion of the Guzerat peninsula. The ancient residence of its Rajahs was at Runtella, but afterwards transferred to Junaghur, a city three miles round, at the foot of mount Ghirnal. On the top of that mountain are several pagodas surrounded with grottos inhabited by Hindoo hermits of different sects. The district is exceedingly fertile. It was formerly infamous for the piracies of its inhabitants, especially those committed by a Rajepoot tribe

Heroism of concubines.

Doaraca. Sacred usages.

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called Sangarians, whose chief place is Noanagur, but these are kept down by commercial treaties with the government of Bombay, one article of which is to allow no such lawless acts. In 1808, Colonel Walker imposed a fine of 40,000 rupees on Hamed Hassan Balis, the Mahometan chief of Soreth, for piracies committed by his subjects and connived at by himself.—The isle of Diu, at the south-west corner of the peninsula, contains a Portuguese town, with a harbour, still frequented by the Arabs.

City of Cambay.

The ancient city of Cambay is remarkable for its subterranean Hindoo temples, formed since the Mahometan invasion. The houses of opulent persons have also subterranean apartments. The city was formerly celebrated for its manufactures of silk, chintz, and gold stuffs; but they have gone to decay. The neighbourhood contains mines of rock salt and also of agates, and the manufacturing of the latter into ornamental cups and vases forms a branch of the industry of the place.

City of Surat.

Surat is the most conspicuous trading city in this province. It is situated on the south bank of the river Tuptee, in latitude 21° 11′ N. and longitude, 73° 7′ E. The outer walls are seven miles in circumference. The inner town has also walls with twelve gates, and a number of towers; but all in a ruinous condition. It is not the policy of the British government to keep up many fortifications of any kind. The mosques and temples, the Nabob's palace, and all the public buildings, are mean and insignificant. The most remarkable institution is the Banyan hospital for sick, wounded, and maimed animals; an institution dictated by the religious tenderness which the Banyan sect cherishes for the animal creation. It is inclosed by high walls, and subdivided into numerous courts for the accommodation of the different species. In sickness they are attended with the utmost assiduity, and provided with an asylum in old age. In 1772, it contained horses, mules, oxen, sheep, goats, monkeys, poultry, pigeons, and various other birds: also an aged tortoise, which was known to have been there seventy-five years. There was even a

ward for rats, mice, bugs, and other noxious animals, and suitable food provided for them. This city has long been a place of great trade, though twenty miles from that part of the river where the vessels are obliged to cast anchor. The harbour is not on the whole commodious, though one of the best on this shore in northerly winds. It is one of the most ancient cities in India, being mentioned in the Ramayuna, a Hindoo poem of great antiquity. In 1800 this city, and the district to which it belongs, fell under the power of the English; previously to which it had been exposed to the most destructive contests between the reigning Nabob and the Mahrattas, as well as to all the violence of lawless predatory bands. It used to be a common thing for the inhabitants of the town to hire bands of Coolies from the neighbourhood, to plunder one another's property;—these thieves being admitted during the night, and secreted in cellars till their opportunities were matured. It is suspected that secret poisonings are common among the Hindoos in this city, instigated by jealousy, revenge, and the cupidity of relations and heirs. At present no offensive weapons are allowed within the walls. In 1796 the population was about 600,000. It is kept down by diseases, especially the small pox. Vaccination is objected to both by the Parsees and the higher classes of the Hindoos, as staining the purity of their caste.

City of Ahmedabad.

The city of Ahmedabad was the Mahometan capital of Guzerat. It is situated on the east bank of the river Sabermatty, and forty miles north from Cambay. It was one of the largest capitals of the east, and was one of the four cities which, in the reign of Akber, possessed a royal mint. It is said to have contained a thousand mosques, and to have extended to Mahmoodabad, which is now ten miles off. A century ago it contained eleven great Hindoo pagodas, three hospitals for animals, and streets beautifully lined with citron and cocoa trees. At present its ruins occupy an area thirty miles in circumference, but its walls are only five miles and a quarter in extent. About the middle of the 15th century, it was the capital of a

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flourishing independent kingdom. In the early part of the 18th century, the Mogul governor assumed the sovereignty. It afterwards fell under the Mahrattas, but in 1779 it was stormed by the British, under General Goddard. Since that time the Peshwa of the Mahrattas and the Guicowar have shared the sovereignty by an ill-understood agreement, and it has been subjected to much anarchy.

Baroda.

Baroda, to the east of Cambay, is the capital of the Mahratta prince known by the family name of the Guicowar, who is much befriended by the English, having sided with them in most of their disputes, and whose power is of considerable extent in the province of Guzerat.

Broach.

The city of Broach, the *Barygaza* of the ancients, forms with its territory part of the English East India Company's possessions. The soil is uncommonly fertile. The people are quiet and orderly compared to many of their neighbours, and the administration of civil justice in the hands of their present rulers has been remarkably successful. The compactness of the district has also rendered it more practicable than in most others to give full protection from marauders by the establishment of patroles.

Province of Adjemere.

To the north of the Guzerat, in an inland and central situation, is the province of Adjemere or Rajepootana; so called from the race of Rajepoots which possesses it, being in an intermediate position between the Seiks and the Mahrattas[p]. Its length from north to south is about 350 miles, and its breadth about 200. It has a sandy soil, and in general presents a desert and dreary appearance; a great portion of it is a waved surface of mere sand, which often rises in clouds, though in winter it exhibits a little verdure, and becomes firmer from a vegetation of grass called *phoke*, the thorny bushes called *baubul*, and the jujube. The villages consist of miserable straw huts, with low sides and conical roofs, surrounded by hedges of dry

[p] See the Memoirs of George Thomas.

thorn. The thirsty fields, which depend on dews and periodical rains, are cultivated with the poorest kinds of pulse, and *Holcus spicatus*, called badjera. Water melons, however, grow in great profusion, and of a large size. The wells are often 300 feet deep, and some only three feet in diameter, lined with masonry. To the east of Bahawulpoor, the road for the caravans is over a hard and sounding clay, totally destitute of vegetation. Near that place the country begins to be well cultivated. The periodical rains are allowed to be absorbed by the sand immediately when they fall, the state of human industry being low and helpless. The common inhabitants are Jauts; the higher classes Rhatore Rajepoots. The former are black, little, and wretched in their appearance. They form a powerful sect of Hindoos, making part of the fourth caste, and known in history from the time of Aurengzebe [9]. The latter are stout and handsome, with hooked noses and Jewish features, haughty in their manners, and almost constantly intoxicated with opium. Bullocks and camels constitute the live stock. The wild animals are,—the desert rat resembling a squirrel, the fox, the antelope, and the wild ass. This province is almost destitute of rivers. The mountain streams of the more hilly parts quickly disappear. In the southern quarter, a portion of it is watered by different streams, as the Chumbul, which sends its waters to the Ganges, and the Banass, which runs west, and falls into the great morass called the Runn. The three chief divisions of this province are,—Odeypoor in the south, Joodpoor in the middle, and Jeypoor in the north. The Rajepoots live under a sort of feudal system. They are brave, and much attached to their chiefs. Their number, though not ascertained, is supposed to be little more than three millions. This country was never completely subjugated by the Mogul power, though it paid tribute, and furnished a number of mercenaries to the imperial army. After the death of Aur-

Jauts.

The Rajepoots.

[9] See Note 3d of Forster's Travels, t. III. p. 104; and Wahl, II. p. 385.

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engzebe in 1707, it continued nominally dependent on the throne of Delhi; but in 1748 the chiefs assumed a state of independence. Since this time the country has been a scene of civil war and plunder, being dreadfully overrun by the Mahratta armies, and infested by various predatory tribes. The Raja of Biccanere is the least important. The Odeypoor Raja is reduced in power, but respected as the purest of the race. In 1807, the Rajas of Jeypoor and Joodpoor disputed for the honour of marrying the daughter of this high-born chief, and suffered their dominions at the same time to become a prey to Ameer Khan, Holcar, and Sindia. In this state of constant uneasiness and wretchedness, all the Rajahs successively have entreated to be connected with the British government—a change which took place in 1818; but is more satisfactory to the people and cultivators than it is to some of the great lords, who were aiming at the possession of separate independence. Their armies were taken into British pay, and placed under British officers,—their own officers being pensioned off. Sir David Auchterlony, by whose skill and address these objects were accomplished, enjoys the dignity of resident and commander of the forces in Rajepootana. Agriculture, and the other arts of peace, begin to attract attention, though ferocious habits must retain some influence for a time.

Town of Adjemere.

The town of Adjemere, seven miles in circumference, was formerly the capital, but contains no trace of magnificence except the remains of a palace built in a garden by Shah Jehan. The streets are narrow, the houses small and in a state of decay. The principal attraction connected with it is a tomb of Khaja Moyen ud Deen, one of the most distinguished Mahometan saints of India. It is of marble, but destitute of elegance. To this tomb the great Akber made a pilgrimage on foot. Upwards of 1100 resident priests subsist on the contributions of the devotees.

Bhattees.

The north-east part of Adjemere is inhabited by a predatory horde called Bhattees. They were originally shepherds and Rajepoots, but are now Mahometans. They

differ from other Mahometans in allowing their women to appear in public. George Thomas says that they could muster 20,000 men. In consequence of their insufferable aggressions on the neighbouring territory of Hurriana, on the east, belonging to the British, they have been reduced, and their forts destroyed. Some of their towns which had been separated from Hurriana were reannexed in 1816.—The principality of Biccanere, lying south from the Bhattee country, is arid and barren. George Thomas says the force of the Rajah amounted to 8000. Mr. Elphinstone, on his mission to the court of Caubul, was kindly received by this prince on his way, who offered him the keys of his fort as an acknowledgment of his submission to the British,—an offer which the other did not accept of. At this time his territory was invaded by five different armies, in consequence of his taking part in the contest between the two Rajas already mentioned. The army of the Raja of Joodpoor was 15,000 strong. His mode of defence was to fill up all the wells within ten miles of his capital. He solicited the interposition of the British mediation, which was not granted; but soon after, in consequence of an application to the resident at Delhi, he received back some towns originally belonging to him, which had been taken by the Bhattees. At last, in 1818, his separate existence as a prince, (if that can be called independence,) was secured by his being admitted within the pale of British protection. Biccanere the capital, and the towns of Chooroo and Pooggul, in this territory, have nothing in them worthy of notice.

Biccanere.

To the south of this principality, and in the west part of the province, lies that of Jesselmere. From this Joodpoor lies east and a little south; an arid territory, containing lead mines. Its population is greatly diminished from what it was in former times. Their character is said to be frank, brave, and generous. The capital, Joodpoor, is of considerable size, destitute of springs or wells, and supplied with water by a large tank cut in a rock. It includes Marwar, a district which, in 1812, became a prey to all the horrors of famine, from the

Jesselmere.

Joodpoor.

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failure of the annual rain of the preceding year. The inhabitants fled to Guzerât, where the vicinity of every large town was crowded with the dying and the dead, half eaten by dogs. Their Brahmins, forgetting the distinction of caste, sold their wives for a few rupees. The hand of charity was opened as liberally as possible, but was quite unavailing to alleviate a calamity so extensive, and it is believed that not one in a hundred lived to return home.

Shekawutties.

The Shekawutty country is straight east from Biccanere. Bhuil is a considerable town belonging to it, situated on the high road from the Punjâb to Biccanere. Here the merchants are oppressed with severe exactions, and sometimes entirely plundered. Its tribes are considered as subject to the Raja of Jeypoor, but have the character of refractory subjects.

Jeypoor.

—The Jeypoor principality is situated in the eastern part of Rajepootana. It produces salt, copper, alum, blue vitriol, and verdigrise. It is compact, and comparatively fertile and populous. In 1805, during the British contests with Scindia and Holcar, the Jeypoor court kept on good terms with both parties while the struggle was doubtful, that it might afterwards join the strongest. In consequence of some temporary successes of Holcar, the Raja joined him against the British, and was subsequently guilty of gross tergiversation towards the latter power. A prejudice against the British was strongly excited, as beef-eaters and shooters of peacocks: this induced Lord Lake to prohibit the slaughter of cows near any of the sacred places, which had the effect of pacifying the minds of the Hindoos. In 1818, this was the last of the Rajepoot states which sent negociators to Delhi; and, after much difficulty, a treaty was arranged, though some of the chiefs still attempted to withhold compliance with its conditions. Jeypoor, the capital, is modern, handsome, and regularly built, and the streets spacious and straight. The citadel is built on a steep rock, which has round it a chain of fortifications four miles in circumference. Near it there is an astronomical observatory, provided with good instruments.

Kotah.

—To the south are some petty states, as Kotah, on

Bhoondee.

the Chumbul river. Bhoondee is another, the Raja of which,

in 1805, reduced himself greatly by some services which he rendered to the British army during a disastrous retreat, but was, at the subsequent pacification, scandalously neglected, and left at the mercy of the Mahrattas. In 1818, however, when he was received within the pale of British protection, his interests were attended to with a laudable care. Not only was he, in common with the others, placed in a state of security highly gratifying after a long experience of extreme wretchedness, his country having been the seat of the most savage war and plunder, but several possessions, of which his enemies had deprived him, were restored. The hills where Boondee, the capital, stands, are inhabited by Meenas, a set of robbers, who, among other enormities, are addicted to the stealing of children, whom they sell for slaves.

Odeypoor.

Odeypoor, on the southern boundary of Rajepootana, is one of the most honourable principalities, but miserably reduced by intestine disorders, and the oppression of the Mahrattas. It is well adapted for vegetation, being hilly and well watered. But its political condition is greatly disorganized, the Rana being weakened in his mind by misfortune, and destitute of respectable counsel or support among his subjects. These circumstances are said to be somewhat ameliorated, though rather in promise than by any thing being actually established. The capital of the same name acquired in 1818 an accession of several thousand inhabitants on the emancipation of the state from the Mahratta yoke. It is situated in a valley surrounded by mountains, and to which the only access is by a narrow defile. That valley contains also some hundreds of villages, but has the character of being unhealthy[1].—Chittore, a town and fort belonging to Odeypoor, is situated on the top of a high and rugged mountain, about eight miles in circumference; it is reckoned a place of great strength. It was for several centuries the capital of a powerful Rajepoot principality, and much celebrated for its riches and antiquity, as well as strength, when it was taken by Akber, in 1567. It had been in the possession

Fortress of Chittore.

[1] Memoirs of George Thomas.

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of the Mahometans at a former period; being taken first by Allah ud Deen, in 1303; but does not seem, on either occasion, to have been permanently retained. It was taken and plundered again by Azim Ushân, the son of Aurengzebe. In 1818, when seen by a British detachment, it appeared naturally strong, but the works neglected and decayed, while the surrounding country, though naturally fertile, was in a most miserable condition.—Kumulnere is one of the strongest forts in Upper Indostan. Sarowy and Pertaubghur are two thinly peopled and uncultivated districts in the south-west.

BASIN OF THE GANGES.

We next proceed to the basin of the Ganges, to describe the countries situated on this mighty river, and its tributaries.

Province of Malwa.

The province of Malwa lies to the south and a little to the east of Rajepootana, chiefly between the 22d and 25th degrees of north latitude, bounded on the west by Guzerat, on the south by the Nerbuddah river, on the east by the province of Allahabad, and on the north, by Rajepootana, and Agra. It contains the sources of the rivers Chumbul, and Betwah, which fall into the Ganges. It is a central region of considerable elevation, with a regular descent from the Vindhya mountains on the south, extending along the north side of the Nerbuddah. But it is more fertile than the adjacent provinces; the soil consisting of a black mould, producing grain, and various vegetables subservient to merchandize. It produces some fruits which cannot stand the heat of the lower provinces. The trade is conducted by land carriage, as the rivers are not navigable. The exports are, cotton, coarse cloths, opium, and the root of the *Morinda citrifolia*. This province was subdued both by the Afghân and the Mogul sovereigns of Delhi. In 1707 it was overrun by the Mahrattas, and in 1732, they separated it from the Mogul dominions, though several landholders, or Grassias, like those of Guzerat, continued to extort some practical acknowledgment of their rights by more or less violence.

In the southern division, especially amidst the mountains contiguous to the Nerbuddah and Tuptee rivers, the savage plundering tribe called Bheels, live in the jungle extending westward to Guzerat, where they meet the Coolies, and eastward to Gundwana, where they come in contact with the Gonds. All these races are averse to regular industry, prone to rapine, and sometimes employed by native chiefs to desolate the territories of their adversaries. A few of them are cavalry, but the greater part infantry, armed with bows, and almost naked. They profess the Hindoo religion, but from their ignorance, are careless of the observances connected with the Brahminical precepts of purity. They had acquired a degree of political consequence from their strength, when in 1818 they were subdued by Sir John Malcolm, and their chiefs came under an obligation to lead peaceable lives, and to protect the property of others. After this, an insurrection of Arabs and Mekrances, was formed under an impostor boy named Krishna, who was made to personate the reigning Raja. This insurrection was defeated, nearly 4000 were expelled, besides 2000 of Bapoo Sindia's Mewatties, and Patans.--Chanderee, the chief town of a district of the same name, is very ancient, and was once a place of great splendour. Abul Fazel says it contained 14,000 stone houses, 376 market places, 360 inns, and 2000 mosques. It does not now correspond to so high a description, but it contains a manufacture of fine cotton stuffs. Seronge is a large open town. In the cold season, the thermometer here often descends below the freezing point, and water freezes during the night. It seems to have been formerly more populous than it is now, though still a flourishing place. It is one of the possessions of Ameer Khan, a Pindaree chief, formerly a freebooter, but now under obligations to abstain from that mode of life. He has several assignments of land, and pending claims in Rajepootana and the country on the east of the Chumbul; but Seronge, and Tonk on the Banas, are his principal possessions.

The Bheels.

Chanderee.

Seronge.

The district of Oojein is fertile. The vines bear a second crop of grapes in the rainy season, but they are sour. The

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Oojein.

city of Oojein, the *Ozene* of Ptolemy, situated in a vast plain, is considered by some as the capital of Malwa. It is the modern capital of the dominions subject to the Sindia Mahrattas. It is adopted by Hindoo geographers and astronomers as the first meridian. The modern town is about a mile to the southward of the ancient, which is said to have been destroyed by an earthquake about the time of Raja Vicramaditya, when it was the seat of arts, learning, and empire. Remains of ancient walls and pillars are found by digging in the site of the ancient city, and among them some pieces of wood of extraordinary hardness. The modern town is six miles in circumference, surrounded by a stone wall with round towers. The houses are of brick with wooden frames. The chief buildings are four mosques, and a number of Hindoo temples. It also contains an astronomical observatory. The waters of the Sipra, near the city, are esteemed sacred, and Oojein itself is a place of pilgrimage. Sindia's palace makes a poor figure. The population has diminished of late, in consequence of many being attracted by the neighbouring town of Indore, where Holcar has fixed his court, formerly migratory. The officers and public functionaries are almost the only Mahratta inhabitants of Oojein. It is, in general, well supplied with provisions, but in 1804, when visited by a British embassy, several persons were seen dead and dying of hunger in the streets. These were said to be needy strangers, and the inhabitants were restrained from giving them relief by the dread of the consequences of any appearance of superfluity. In 1807, a treaty was concluded by the British with Sindia, by which he engaged to do his utmost to effect the extermination of the Pindarees, but his conduct was always suspicious till the battle of Maheidpoor, when the power of Holcar was suddenly annihilated.

Indore.

Indore is the capital of the Mahratta chief bearing the family name of Holcar, who has of late years made a great figure in the wars of India, having taken Poonah in 1802, and desolated the whole neighbouring country.—Bopaul

Bopaul.

is the capital of a small independent state, 100 miles east from Oojein, and near a lake which abounds in crocodiles. The country is naturally fertile, but neglected, and overrun with jungle, which has been for some years a place of refuge for all kinds of banditti, and the very centre of Pindaree influence. The town and territory are occupied by a colony of Patans, to whom they were assigned by Aurengzebe. The town is at present deserted and ruinous. Their Nabob is supported by British alliance, after having been long oppressed by the Pindarees and Mahrattas[s].—Saugor was taken by the British forces under General Marshall in 1818, and was found to exhibit every appearance of an opulent and flourishing city, though in the heart of the Pindaree country. This whole district and neighbourhood are naturally strong, and part of the military force required to overawe central Indostan is stationed within the limits of the Saugor district. Saugor.

The banditti so well known by their predatory incursions under the name of Pindarees at first occupied a small portion in the south of the Malwa province, but afterwards extended to the centre, and seemed in a fair way of soon absorbing the whole. This name was originally applied to a body of roving cavalry which accompanied the Peshwa's armies. When the Peshwa ceased to interfere with any territory to the north of the Nerbuddah, leaving that portion of the Mahratta empire to Sindia and Holcar, the Pindarees divided into two parties, according as they attached themselves to the fortunes of the one or the other of these chiefs. All the Pindaree leaders, and most of the men, were Mahometans, but they admitted all sects into their body, and formed a general nucleus for vagabond and disaffected persons, till the elements of confusion and destruction were gradually so concentrated as to form a dreadful scourge to India. Like the early Mahrattas, they systematically prosecuted a war of plunder and devastation on Account of the Pindarees.

[s] See Prinsep's Narrative of the Political and Military Transactions of British India, under the administration of the Marquis of Hastings, from 1813 to 1818, p. 21, &c.

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all their neighbours, and were recently acquiring the consolidated form of one or more organized states. They lived in societies of one or two hundred. When an enterprising leader determined on a plundering expedition, he invited the neighbouring Thokdars, as the chiefs were called. The power of the leader was not hereditary, but founded entirely on the respect paid to his talent and enterprise. The submission paid to him was partial, except when in the midst of an enemy's country, when the safe return of the party depended on their implicit obedience to his orders. They moved in some measure at random, their previous information being seldom correct. The only object in the arrangement of their movements was to keep together. There was nothing systematic either in the attacks which they made, or in the division of the plunder, except that a part of the latter was set apart for those who were obliged to remain behind taking charge of the horses. They were excellent riders; their arms were swords and spears: fire arms, though they esteemed them for their execution, they disliked as too cumbersome. Nothing generous or brave, but every thing that was both mean and desperate, characterized their proceedings. To secure plunder by all means, and when attacked to escape in the securest manner, were their only objects. They undertook long journies of two or three months, through the midst of armed enemies. In 1814, their strength was estimated at 31,000. In the northern Circars, the devastation which they made, and the plunder which they carried off, were immense. They put thousands of individuals to the most inhuman tortures, to make them disclose their treasures, and many were barbarously murdered.

Nature of their expeditions.

As they were proceeding to convert all the finest part of India into a desert, it became the imperious duty of the British government to put an end to so formidable a series of atrocities. The Marquis of Hastings took the field against them in October, 1817, and, by a well concerted combination of movements, directed to their native haunts as to a centre, he expelled them by the end of November. In their attempts to take refuge, partly with Sindia, and partly with some subordinate neighbouring chiefs, they were

Their suppression.

disappointed. Arrangements were afterwards made, by which those of their own chiefs who surrendered were provided for as peaceable cultivators or proprietors, in districts not fitted by any natural strength to cherish their lawless habits; and this serious danger has thus been crushed. India is a country peculiarly liable to these irregular marauding combinations, which from time to time require to be put down, but it is seldom that they attain a strength so formidable as in the instance of the Pindarees, and, under the preventive measures now adopted in that country, such a power is not likely again to arise.

Province of Agra.

On the north of Malwah, between Rajepootana on the west and Oude on the east, and bounded on the north side by Delhi, is the province of Agra. In its western and southern parts, this province is hilly and jungly; the rest is open, flat, and rather bare of trees. The climate is, generally speaking, temperate, but in winter it is really cold; and during the hot winds of summer, though these are not of long duration, the climate is unhealthy, especially in the hills. The Jumna, the Chumbul, the Ganges, and several smaller streams, such as the Sinde and the Koharry, flow through this province; yet it is not well supplied with water. To the north of the Chumbul, and on the western frontier, during the dry season, except in the immediate vicinity of the large and permanent rivers, water for agricultural uses is procured from wells. The soil is well adapted for indigo, cotton, and sugar, the crops of which articles are annually increasing in those portions which are immediately under British jurisdiction; in those which remain subject to native chiefs, agriculture is far behind. The territory between the Ganges and Jumna, which is called the Doab, is particularly fertile, and exports indigo, sugar and cotton. It is more thinly peopled than Bengal and the more flourishing provinces. The population may be estimated at six millions, of which the Doabeh districts under British rule comprehend a considerable proportion. The natives are a handsome and ro-

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bust race. The Hindoo is the prevailing religion, though the Mahometans have ruled here since the eighteenth century. The language in common use is the Hindostanee; the Persian is used for public documents, and also in conversation among the higher classes of the Mahometans. The Agra district of this province is notorious for the frequency of highway robbery, which is believed to be connived at or encouraged by the Zemindars, though under the British jurisdiction. Robbers, indeed, easily escape from the latter into the territories of native chiefs, where, after committing a robbery, they find a secure asylum.

City of Agra.

The city of Agra occupies a wide plain on the north-west side of the Jumna, in the form of a crescent. It is supposed to have been the birth-place of the Avatar, or incarnation of Vishnu, under the name of Parasee Rama, whose conquests extended to Ceylon. According to Tiefenthaler, it is seven miles long, and three broad[x]. It is to the Emperor Akber that it owes its splendour; he gave it the name of Akber-Abad. Only a few monuments of it are left, among which is the palace of Akber, one of the finest buildings in Asia. It stands on an eminence; its walls of red granite present the appearance of a single block of stone[a], extending in a crescent shape along the river side, leaving between its walls and the water, a beach which is used as a harbour, where numerous trading barks and pleasure boats are continually arriving. Three days in the week, the great square of the palace, planted with several rows of oriental plane-trees, is employed as a market place. Round this square a fine gallery extends, and at regular distances are six triumphal arches of entrance, leading from the same number of spacious streets. The middle of the square is ornamented with a stone statue of an elephant emitting a stream of water from his trunk. The palace has two immense galleries, adorned with twenty-four double columns of white marble, with pedestals of

Palace of Akber.

[x] I. tab. 7. No. 2.

[a] Valentyn, Oud-und-Nieuw Ostindien, VI. 205. (Vie des Grands Mogols.)

blue granite and capitals of yellow mica. The mosque belonging to the palace is entirely of mica, and resembles a casket of precious pebble [t]. In the interior of the apartments, gold, marble, and sculptures executed in red, yellow, and black stone, occur every where in the greatest profusion. Round the great palace, seven small marble palaces, for the use of the princes, are ranged in symmetrical order.—At a little distance from the citadel is the great mosque of Akber, a building superior to the famous mosque of Soliman at Constantinople. Its red granite walls are encrusted with plates of gold, and a cornice runs along the foundation. The mosque of Aurengzebe, on the river side, is supported by upwards of a hundred columns.—Among the mausoleums with which this city is adorned are those of Akber and Shah-Jehan, of astonishing size and grandeur; but surpassed by that of the father-in-law of Jehan, the celebrated Noor Jehan Begum. It is kept in repair by the English. On every side we meet with magnificent gardens. In the time of Tiefenthaler, there was at Agra a Jesuitical college, and a Christian burying-ground, with a vast vaulted building, the walls of which were painted with all sorts of flowers, while a fountain of sweet-scented water played by their side. Agra once owed much of its flourishing condition to the industry of its inhabitants. The city was filled with store-houses, work-shops, sale-shops, and market places. Its trade has greatly declined, yet it still contains a great number of merchants, both native and foreign. Legoux de Flaix says, it may contain 800,000 inhabitants. This must be an exaggeration, and so indeed are the accounts often given of its present magnificence. The English accounts reduce it to 60,000. This city had the honour of giving birth to Abul Fazel, prime minister of Akber, and author of the Ayeen Ackbery, or Statistical Account of Indostan. A lineal descendant of this meritorious vi-

The Mosque.

Mausolea, &c.

Family of Abul Fazel.

[t] Legoux de Flaix, Essai, I. p. 174.

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zier resided, and probably still resides here, Mustapha Khan, living on a pension which he has received under the successive rulers of the country. The Gallo-Mahrattan administration reduced that pension to fifteen rupees, L.1, 10s. per annum. In 1813, the British government assigned him fifty rupees per month.—Agra, with the rest of the province, fell under the sway of Madhajee Sindia, and continued in the hands of the Mahrattas till 1803, when it surrendered to Lord Lake. Among the artillery captured was one enormous piece called the great gun of Agra, twenty-three inches in calibre, fourteen feet two inches in length, the thickness of metal at the muzzle eleven and an half inches; weight of the gun, 96,600 pounds; the ball of cast iron which it received weighed 1500 pounds. In an attempt made to convey it to Calcutta, it broke through the raft and sunk into the river, in the bed of which it probably still remains.

Great gun of Agra.

Futtipoor.

The town of Futtipoor, to the south-west of Agra, owed its lustre to Akber. It has a stone wall of great extent, which seems never to have been filled with buildings. The only monument is the tomb of Shah Selim Cheestee, by whose prayers the empress of Akber became pregnant of a son, who, when born, was called Selim in honour of the saint, and, on ascending the throne, took the name of Jehangeer.

Mathura.

Mathura, thirty miles N.N.W. from Agra, is celebrated as the scene of the birth and early adventures of Krishna. It was destroyed by Mahmood of Ghizree in 1018. It was afterwards rebuilt and adorned with many rich temples, the most magnificent of which was erected by Raja Beer Singh Deo of Oorcha. This temple was razed by Aurengzebe, who erected a mosque with the materials on the spot. In the fort are still to be seen the remains of an observatory built by Rajah Jeysingh of Jyenagur. After the dissolution of the Mogul government, this place experienced many misfortunes, and, among others, a general massacre of its inhabitants by the orders of Ahmed Shah Abdalli in 1756. At the end of the eighteenth century, it was the head quarters of General Perron, the

French commander of the Sindia Mahrattas. It was taken by Lord Lake in 1803. It is a great resort of Hindoo votaries. Here a multitude of sacred monkeys of large size are fed by the hand of superstition at the public expense. In 1808, two young English officers having inadvertently fired at one of these revered protegés, were immediately assailed by an overwhelming mob of priests and worshippers, and, in making their escape over the river on an elephant, were drowned. The fish in this part of the Jumna are equally respected, and are said to come to the surface in expectation of being fed.

Sacred monkeys.

In the Doab, in the district of Etaweh, is the city of Kanoje, which was a place of great renown, and the capital of a powerful empire at the period of the Mahometan invasion. But it is now completely fallen. The completion of its misfortunes was in 1761, when it was sacked by the Mahrattas. It is now a heap of ruins concealed under rank jungle, a retreat for robbers and criminals of every description. No buildings of any importance remain: the brick walls are going rapidly to decay. Hindoo coins, with the figures of deities, are sometimes found among the rubbish.

Kanoje.

Furruckabad, the capital of a district, and the mercantile emporium of the ceded districts of the neighbourhood, contained in 1811 a population of 66,800, which is supposed to be greatly on the increase. Gualior, about seventy miles south from the city of Agra, in this district, is reckoned one of the strongest fortresses in Indostan. It is built on a detached rock 340 feet high, and perpendicular all round; its length is a mile and a half, but its greatest breadth not more than 300 yards. A stone parapet extends all round close to the brow of the hill. Within the summit of this fort, are large natural caves, which contain a never-failing supply of excellent water. The town, placed along the east side of the hill, is large, well inhabited, and contains many good houses of stone, which the neighbouring hills furnish in abundance. This has always been a place of great consequence. Under the Moguls it was used as a state pri-

Furruckabad.

Fortress of Gualior.

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son, where the obnoxious members of the royal family were confined. It was taken by the Mahometans in 1197 after a long siege, and again by the Afghâns in 1235. In 1519, after having been 100 years in the possession of the Hindoos, it yielded to Ibrahim Lodi, emperor of Delhi. In 1582 it is described by Abul Fazel as the head town of a district. It afterwards came under the Mahrattas. It is deemed impregnable, yet has often changed masters. In 1780 it was taken by surprise and escalade, by the British troops under Major Popham; the storming party being headed by Capt. Bruce, brother to the celebrated traveller in Abyssinia. It is now in the possession of Dowlet Row Sindia, whose camp, formerly itinerant, was fixed at a short distance south-west from this fortress, where a second city has consequently risen, surpassing the old one in size and population.

Bhurtpoor.

Bhurtpoor, thirty-one miles N. by W. from Agra, is the capital of an independent state formed by the Jauts, who originally came from Mooltan, and, though of a low caste, assumed higher claims on adopting military habits. The Bhurtpoor Raja owes his situation at present to the forbearance of the English, to whom he has more than once proved an unwilling observer of treaties, joining enemies from whom he had no reason to expect greater friendship, or a more respectable independent alliance. He is consequently less powerful than he once was, and pledges of his fidelity, and even testimonies of submission, are now exacted.

Macherry.

Macherry is a Raja-ship adjoining the province of Delhi. The Raja has always maintained friendly relations with the British, on whom he is dependent. In 1811, after being for some time in a state of mental derangement, he was seized with an unfortunate propensity to persecute his Mahometan subjects by the most wanton acts of violence and outrage, destroying their tombs and places of worship, and cutting off the noses and ears of the devotees. This religious phrenzy was, however, placed under restraint, and practical toleration re-established by British interposition. Bindroban, or Bendrabad, on the Jumná, is a place containing

some old temples, and a tree held in great reverence by the Hindoos [u]. Along the river there are many small chapels inhabited by hermits, and octagonal towers where the pilgrims assemble to bathe. Among the inhabitants are many Beerajes, or Indian monks, and some female vestals: both of them go almost naked, and live in dark straw-roofed cells, wearing three yellow stripes on their foreheads.

Province of Delhi.

Ascending the Jumna, we enter the imperial province of Delhi, to the north of Agra and Adjemere, bounded on the west by Adjemere and Lahore; on the north by Lahore and the mountainous countries; and on the east by the same countries, and the province of Oude. Several territories in this province were in 1803 assigned by the British to the support of the decayed representative of the Mogul family, and the revenue is collected under the superintendence of the English resident at Delhi. It has gradually increased, and after supporting the royal household, a surplus remains applicable to general purposes. This province has less natural fertility than Agra, but is better cultivated. It yields three crops of rice in the year. Much of it is still uncultivated, but the places fully subjected to British administration are rapidly improving. It is in contemplation to open a great canal of irrigation, which formerly existed, but has of late years been choked up. The districts subject to native chiefs, though also somewhat improved, are comparatively neglected, in consequence of the feuds which prevail among them. The population of this province does not exceed eight millions, consisting of Hindoos, Mahometans, and Seiks, the latter religion being prevalent in the north west.

City of Delhi.

The city of Delhi is in Lat. 28° 40′ N. and Long. 77° 5′ E. on the west bank of the river Jumna. It was called Indrapraths prior to the Mahometan invasion, and was even then a city of great fame and magnitude. In the days of its splendour, it occupied an extent of twenty miles. It has only one street in a line parallel to

[u] Tiefenthaler, I. 141.

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the river. In 1738 it was sacked by Nadir Shah, and spoiled of its treasures, which were valued at more than ten millions, among which were splendid collections of diamonds, a throne of massive gold studded with precious stones, and statues of elephants in chased gold. The Afghâns and Mahrattas have completed its destruction. Still according to Legoux de Flaix, it contained in his time more than 1,700,000 inhabitants, but its population is considered by its present masters as only between 150,000, and 200,000. It is divided into two parts, the one inhabited by natives, called Indooanee, the other by Mussulmans, and called Mogolanee; the latter is the most handsome. The finest building contained in it is the imperial palace on the Jumna; it is built of red granite of a tasteful architecture; its length is 1000 yards, and its breadth 600. It is said to have cost 10,500,000 rupees, (£1,050,000.) The rooms glitter with gilding, azure, and all sorts of ornaments. The stables are capable of holding 10,000 horses. Even the kitchens were like drawing rooms. The Djenana, or palace of the princesses, communicated with that of the emperor by a gallery. On the opposite side of the river was the Selimserey palace, the residence of the brothers and near kin of the emperor, kept in a state of splendid imprisonment. Three other sumptuous palaces are still to be seen in the suburbs, the most remarkable of which is the Godaié Kotelar. The walls of the great saloon are ornamented with crystal, and a lustre of black crystal of admirable workmanship hangs from the ceiling; so that when lighted up, the whole presents the appearance of a conflagration.

Buildings.

Palace.

The peacock throne.

Here Legoux tells us, the "peacock throne" was still preserved [u]. This throne, says that author, is of an oval form, placed under a palm tree which overshadows it with its foliage; a peacock, perched on one of the large palmated leaves, stretches its wings to cover the personage who is seated on the throne. The palm tree and peacock are of gold; so thin and delicate are the feathers and the leaves, that they seem to wave and tremble with the slight-

[u] See his Essay on Indostan, I. 193.

est breath of wind. The tail and wings of the peacock glitter with superb emeralds. The fruit of the palm is partly executed in Golconda diamonds, and it is an exact imitation of nature. Modern Delhi contains many good houses, mostly of brick. The observatory is in its vicinity. It was built in the reign of Mahomed Shah, but has been repeatedly plundered.—Among the most splendid memorials of the taste and magnificence of Shah Jehan is the well belonging to the Jumna Mojeed or mosque. The water is raised by complicated machinery, and a succession of reservoirs, to the area of the mosque. It becomes an object not only of great convenience, but sometimes of necessity to the whole inhabitants of the city. The consequences of its having gone into disrepair were very distressing during the hot season in 1809, and it was subsequently put in order at the expense of the British government.—Such is the veneration with which, from political habit, the city of Delhi is viewed, that many of the native princes still attach to it the idea of being the capital of their supreme government. The coin is in some places struck in the name of the Mogul emperor. Some have applied to the present representative of the family for confirmation in their respective possessions; an empty ceremony, which the British policy does not encourage, whilst others apply for favour and acknowledgment to the British power, chiefly in consideration of their now having possession of the Mogul metropolis[y].

Pillar of Cuttub Minar.

Nine miles south-west from Delhi there is a remarkably elegant pillar 242 feet high, which seems to have been intended as a minaret to a mosque which was never built: it goes under the name of Cuttub Minar.

Rewary.

Rewary, fifty miles S. W. from Delhi, is a town, with a district of the same name, formerly given to the Raja of Bhurtpoor, but resumed by the British on account of his infidelity to his engagements in their cause. It is now a secure and considerable entrepôt for the commerce carried on with Delhi in that direction, which is great and constant.

[y] Elphinstone.

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Paniput. Paniput, fifty miles N. by W. from Delhi, was formerly a great commercial emporium, but has suffered severely from the political confusion which so long desolated the country. It is famous as the scene of two of the greatest battles ever fought in India; one in 1525, between the Sultan Bauber and Ibrahim Lodi, the Afghân emperor of Delhi, in which the latter was defeated and slain, in consequence of which the dynasty of Timour seized the throne; the second took place in 1751, between Ahmed Shah Abdalli, king of the Afghâns, and the Mahrattas, under the Bhow Sidasiva. The latter were routed with immense slaughter; 40,000 prisoners were taken; out of 500,000 persons, including men, women, and children, who composed the Mahratta camp, the greater part were killed: many were deliberately put to death in cold blood by the Afghâns; and many who attempted to escape were slain by the neighbouring Zemindars.

Rohilcund. That part of the province of Delhi which lies to the east of the Ganges is called Rohilcund, being formerly possessed by a race called Rohillas, originally of the Yoosofzey Afghân tribe, who migrated hither about the beginning of the eighteenth century. They are a handsome and tall race, of a whiter complexion than the more southerly inhabitants of India, courageous and hardy, and conjoin the pursuits of agriculture with those of arms. They were united under a distinct leader. In 1774 the British defeated their combined forces at the battle of Cutterah. They have been since that time exposed to the plundering incursions of the Seiks, and the rapacity of the Nabob of Oude, who also denies the Rohillas the advantage of commercial intercourse with his territories, which is enjoyed by the other British districts; but their industry puts them in possession of a considerable trade. Rohilcund includes the three separate jurisdictions of Bareilly, Shah-jehan-poor, and Moradabad. The Mahometans and Hindoos are about equal in number; but, owing to the intolerance of the former, there are no Hindoo temples of any magnitude. The population, especially

The Rohillas.

about the town of Bareilly, is considerable, but has never been numerically ascertained. Bareilly is a large and thriving place, situated on the banks of the united Jooah and Lunkra. It was the capital of Hafez Rehmut, a Rohilla chief, slain at the battle of Cutterah, who lies interred here.—Cutterah is twenty-eight miles S. E. from Bareilly.—Moradabad forms the western part of Rohilcund. The soil is naturally moist: it is rich, but not cultivated. The climate is unhealthy, a circumstance attributed to the vicinity of the mountains; and the population is scanty. During the Patan sway, this part, as well as the rest of Rohilcund, was in a highly flourishing condition; its decline may be dated from the Mahratta invasion. It has been a prey to Jauts, Mewatties, Aheers, and others; and even still the police is far from being efficient for the prevention of gross enormities. The imprisonments, trials, and punishments, which take place on account of robbery and murder, are uncommonly numerous. The independent jaghire of Rampoor, possessed by a Rohilla Nabob, affords refuge to plunderers from the pursuit of justice. In 1816, the number of prisoners at Moradabad was upwards of four hundred.

About 90 miles due north from the city of Delhi is Saharunpoor, the capital of a British district of the same name. This district, though situated between the Jumna and the Ganges, and in itself flat, is not subject to the periodical inundations which prevail in Bengal. Saharunpoor.

In this district is Hurdwar, a celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage, near the last of the falls of the Ganges, where the pilgrims come to bathe in the river. At the end of March they begin to assemble. In 1794 there were 150,000. Every ten years the number is unusually great. This gregarious pilgrimage is accompanied by an annual fair, at which a great multitude of mercantile transactions take place. In times of political uncertainty and confusion, serious affrays have occurred from the rival claims advanced by different armed castes to the superiority and direction. The British ascendency has been followed by the establishment of Hurdwar. Annual pilgrimages.

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more steady regulations for conducting the ceremonies and the trade. The town of Hurdwar is very small, having only one street, which is about a furlong and a half in length. About forty-seven miles N.N.E. from Delhi is Seerdhuna, the chief town of Somroo Begum, the widow of a celebrated military adventurer, called Somroo, who was a native of Treves, and died in 1776.

Hurriana.

In the west part of the province lies Hurriana, the chief town of which, Hissar, has extensive ruins, having been once a flourishing capital. The palace of Feroze Shah, in the centre, has some extensive subterranean apartments. The surrounding territory was long a prey to all sorts of irregularity and individual rapacity, the British leaving it to different chiefs, and declining to receive marks of subjection from any, for fear of becoming involved in their disputes with their neighbours: but matters were carried to such a height among the predatory natives and neighbours, that the chiefs resigned their possessions, and the British took them into their own hands. This happened about 1809.

The northern quarter of the province of Delhi is occupied by Seik principalities under British protection. Here is the ancient town of Thanusar, in the vicinity of which is the lake Khoorket, to which pilgrims come from great distances to worship and bestow their charity. Sirhind, once a renowned and brilliant city, is now a scene of desolation, from the devastations of the Seiks, who, in 1707, destroyed the mosques, and levelled the palaces and public buildings with the ground. D'Anville makes this the *Serinda* from which Justinian procured silk worms, an opinion not admitted by other oriental scholars.

Province of Oude.

On the south-east of Delhi is the province of Oude, the smallest in Upper Indostan. On the north it is bounded by some dependencies of Nepâl; on the south by Allahabad; on the east by Bahar; and on the west by Agra and Delhi. Its length is 250 miles; its breadth 100. The whole surface is level, well watered, and pro-

ductive in various valuable plants. It also produces nitre, kitchen salt, and *lapis lazuli*, from which last is obtained the ultra-marine blue so much valued by painters, and which sells at nine guineas per ounce. The Hindoo inhabitants of this and the adjoining provinces are a much superior race both in bodily and mental qualities to those of the southern parts, though the latter may be their equals in acuteness and cunning. The Rajepoots, or military class, have robust frames, and are taller in stature than the Europeans. Many of them are Mahometans. From this province some of the East India Company's best sepoys are procured. Their military habits were kept much on the alert by the political anarchy of the province, till the British government assumed the superintendence. The present capital of Oude is Lucknow, on the south side of the river Goomty, one of the tributaries of the Ganges which descends from the Kumaoon mountains. The streets inhabited by the lower classes are sunk several feet below the surface. They are extremely dirty, and so narrow that two carts cannot pass each other. The Nabob's palace, the mosques, and burying places, display considerable splendour, having gilt roofs and an ornamented architecture. The Imâm Barri, built by Asoph ud Dowla in 1783, is reckoned one of the most superb edifices in India, with the exception of those erected by the emperor of Delhi. Here is the sepulchre of that Nabob, where tapers are kept burning, and verses from the Koran continually chaunted, both day and night.—In the neighbourhood is Constantia, the residence of the late General Claude Martin, to which are attached a superb garden and a mango clump, but the surrounding country is flat and barren. On the General's decease the furniture was sold, and the mirrors and girandoles now adorn the government house at Calcutta.

Lucknow.

The town of Oude, on the south side of the river Gogra, is religiously honoured as the ancient capital of the great Rama, but now exhibits a shapeless heap of ruins, covered with jungle, and containing the reputed sites of temples dedicated to different sainted characters. The

Site of the city of Oude.

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pilgrims who resort hither are chiefly of the Ramata sect. Fyzabad, which was the capital before 1775, still contains a numerous population. It has been chiefly remarkable of late years as the residence of the celebrated Bhow Begum, widow of Shuja ud Dowlah, who died in 1815, and left a treasure amounting to L.1,038,074 Sterling, exclusive of jewels, shawl goods, wearing apparel, cattle, and various other property. Between the river Gogra and the southmost range of the Himālah chain of mountains, is Gorukpoor, a large but depopulated town, not far from the mausoleum of Goseknath, a famous Hindoo hermit, and founder of the sect of Jaghys;—Balrampoor, much frequented by the merchants from the northern mountains, who bring hither the tails of yaks and strong horses of a small breed;—Naudpara, on a marshy soil covered with bamboos, and inhabited by wild long-horned buffaloes;—Nimkar, on the Goomty, where a sacred table, a tree, and some pools, attract the veneration of the Hindoos;—and Khyrabad, which contains a considerable manufacture of cotton stuffs. In the district belonging to it is a sacred place called Brahmavert, where Brahma sacrificed by the side of a muddy pool.

Fyzabad.

Province of Allahabad.

On the south of Agra and of Oude lies the province of Allahabad. It is bounded on the south by the Hindoo province of Gundwana, on the west by Malwah, and on the east by Bahar. The surface of this province on the banks of the Jumna and Ganges is flat and highly productive, but the south-west parts, called Bundelcund, consist of an elevated table land, diversified with high hills, and abounding with fastnesses. It is not susceptible of complete cultivation, but it contains the famous diamond mines of Pannah. The low part has a sultry climate, and is exposed to hot winds, from which Bundelcund is exempt. Besides the two great rivers, a number of small streams flow through the north part of this province, and render some districts, especially the subdivisions of Benares and Allahabad, among the most productive countries of India. It exports diamonds, nitre, opium, sugar, and indigo. The hilly country

having fewer and smaller rivers, depends chiefly on the periodical rains, and the water procured with considerable labour from wells. The population exceeds seven millions, consisting of a proportion of Hindoos to Mahometans as eight to one. In the remote antiquities of India, it held a high rank for containing the two chief prayagas or confluences of the Ganges, places always esteemed peculiarly sacred in the Brahminical religion. It is at present entirely subject to British jurisdiction, with the exception of some petty chiefdoms in Bundelcund. The city of Allahabad is considered by some orientalists as the ancient *Palibothra*, the capital of the Prasian or Pragian monarchy. It is called by the Hindoos the "Prayaga" by way of distinction, being the most sacred place of this description. Here the Ganges, the Jumna, and the Sereswati are said to join; the last, however, is not now visible, and is only asserted to flow under ground! By bathing at the place of junction, a condensation of religious purification is obtained, amounting to the same degree as if the votary had bathed in each of the three separately, and even acquiring from the junction an additional consummation of spiritual privileges. When the pilgrim arrives, he sits down on the bank of the river, has his head shaved, allowing all his hair to drop off directly into the water, the sacred writings promising a million of years' residence in heaven for each hair thus disposed of. Next day he performs the obsequies of his deceased ancestors. Each devotee pays a tax of three rupees to government, and expends much more in charity to the Brahmins, who wait by the river side to receive these pious oblations. Many sacrifice their lives at the exact place of confluence, by going out in a boat and plunging in with weights hung to their sides. Others lose their lives by the pressing of the crowds, eager to enter the most sacred spot of the river at periods of the moon esteemed supereminently holy. The fort of Allahabad is situated on a tongue of land a quarter of a mile from the city, the one side being washed by the Jum-

City.

Hindoo piety.

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na and the other approaching to the Ganges. It is lofty and extensive, and commands the navigation of both rivers. The side next the land is regular and very strong; the gateway elegant, and in the Grecian taste. The government house is spacious and cool. The fortifications are considered as now quite impregnable to the tactics of a native army. This was a favourite city of Akber, and by that emperor the modern city was founded. The houses were formerly built of brick and substantial, but now mostly of mud. The inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison, are estimated at 20,000.

City of Benares.

Another place of distinguished interest in India is the city of Benares in this province, being both a place of great sanctity and the focus of Brahminical erudition. The streets of Benares are so extremely narrow that it is difficult to get along even on horseback. The number of stone and brick houses is upwards of 12,800. Some of the brick houses are six stories high, with terraces and small windows. Those on the opposite sides of the streets are often connected by crossing galleries. The mud houses are above 16,000 in number, and in 1803, the permanent inhabitants exceeded 582,000, exclusive of 8000 foreigners. During festivals the concourse is beyond calculation. The Mahometans are supposed to be more than one in ten. About 8000 houses are occupied by mendicant though not needy Brahmins. The mosque was built by Aurengzebe in a conspicuous and sacred spot, where a Hindoo temple formerly stood, which was destroyed to make room for the mosque. The houses of the English at Serole are handsome, but, like others in this climate, look bare for want of trees, which cannot be suffered near any dwelling on account of the multitudes of musquitoes which they harbour. Benares contains many inhabitants of great opulence, and many active merchants and bankers. It is the great mart for diamonds and other precious stones, brought principally from Bundelcund. The land in the vicinity is high priced and

property frequently litigated. Benares is held sacred for ten miles round. The famous lingam which it contains is reckoned a petrifaction of Siva himself. Within the city are not less than a million of images of the lingam. The history of this city is rich in the marvellous. It is believed that it was originally built of gold, but in consequence of the sins of the people was converted into stone, and afterwards into clay and thatch for their increasing wickedness. The Brahmins maintain that the physical foundation of this city differs from that of the rest of the terrestrial mass. It rests on the point of Siva's trident! while the earth rests on the thousand-headed serpent Ananta, (the emblem of eternity.) Hence no earthquake is ever felt within its holy limits, and it retained its position at epochs at which the rest of the world was overthrown. One visit to Benares secures for the pilgrim a happy entrance into the heaven of Siva. There are persons who practise the profession of regular guides or cicerones to the pilgrims. Many resort hither to finish their days, and such is its sanctity, that even the English, who have stained their souls with the blood of the cow, and sacrilegiously fed on her flesh, may obtain absorption into Brihm by dying at Benares. Let it be hoped that this privilege does not depend on the faith which the privileged individual reposes in the reality of the bliss which awaits him—a condition which would be somewhat unreasonable.—Benares is also the Athens of the Hindoos. In 1801, besides the public college for Hindoo literature, there were private teachers of the Hindoo and Mahometan law. Of the former 300 were said to be eminent: their pupils were 5000. No fees are taken from the pupils, the teachers being supported by donations from pilgrims of rank, and regular salaries from Hindoo princes. Reading and writing are taught together, the boys being made to learn the forms of the letters by tracing them on a surface of loose sand. The Brahmins are seen teaching literature and science in the streets, and under the trees. The ancient name of Benares was Casi, or "the splendid," which it still retains. Since 1781, when it came into the

Fables connected with it.

Its learning.

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hands of the English, it has enjoyed uninterrupted tranquillity, and has increased in all directions. Its population certainly exceeds 600,000. It has fine gardens, elegant tanks, and pagodas ancient and modern, among which is the temple of Visvisha, built of red stone, and ornamented with elegant columns and fine sculpture. It contains a stone statue of a bull, and a living bull is always kept in it, as in the temple of Apis in Egypt. The pagoda is consecrated to Mahadeo, or Siva, who is worshipped under the symbol of a black stone, a common emblem of divinity among the ancient nations, and which some consider as connected with the history of stones which have fallen from the heavens[z]. The observatory, built by the Raja Jessing, still stands. Its figure is spherical, representing the universe. In its interior are contained the zodiac, and other circles of the armillary sphere. The astronomical system here delineated is the Copernican, which is believed to have been known and adopted by the ancient Indians. The instruments for observation are partly made of stone[a].

Observatory.

In the district of Rewah, the English have, as in other places, put down the trade of gang robbery, by which the country was previously so unmercifully oppressed. Surnaid Singh, a leader of a den of thieves, finding he could not escape when the mud fort of Entoorree was stormed, and the garrison put to the sword, strewed gunpowder on a cloth, in which he wrapped himself up, and then terminated his life by setting it on fire.

Pannah. Diamond mines.

The diamond mines of Pannah are supposed to have been the *Panassa* of Ptolemy. During the reign of Akber they were supposed to yield eight lacks of rupees per annum; and, under the government of the native chiefs and of the Mahrattas, these mines have been a considerable source of public revenue, as well as of mercantile profit. The diamonds are contained in the loose soil which is mixed with pebbles.

[z] Dalberg, sur le culte meteorique.

[a] Esquisses de l'Histoire des Indes, Trad. de l'Angl. II. p. 24.

The soil is washed, and the pebbles separated with the hand on a board. The diamonds are always found loose and separate. Many days are spent unsuccessfully in this labour, but a very few diamonds in the course of the year repay the workmen. They are taken to a house, weighed, and sold to the merchants residing at Pannah. The workmen are allowed a certain proportion of their value. Chatterpoor is a trading town, but full of temples, and inhabited partly by berages, or Indian monks, fakeers, and other devotees. It was an important entrepôt for the trade between Mirzapoor and the Deccan. It is extensive and well built, but far from being so flourishing as in former times.

Province of Bahar.

The large province of Bahar is situated between Bengal on the east, and Oude and Allahabad on the west. On the north it is bounded by the territory of Nepâl, and on the south by Gundwana, which also extends round part of its western frontier. Its surface is flat, the soil fertile, and the climate highly favourable to vegetation. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, have always greatly flourished in this province. Opium is its staple commodity, of which the government makes a monopoly. It is brought to Calcutta, and exposed to public sale. Nitre is also manufactured. The modern capital is Patna, about a mile and a half long, and three fourths of a mile broad within the walls. It is closely built, and the suburbs are extensive, so that altogether it occupies nine miles along the river side, (including Jaffier Khan's garden,) and its width averages two miles. It contains but few European houses and settlers. The walls and gates are in a decayed and tottering state. In the middle of the city the Romish Christians, consisting of twenty Portuguese families, have a church, the handsomest in the place. Near to it is the common grave of the English, who were treacherously massacred by Meer Cossim in 1763, before his final overthrow. That massacre was perpetrated by the adventurer Somroo or Summers. This place now ranks before

City of Patna.

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Delhi and Agra: its population is 312,000 of stationary inhabitants; of whom 97,000 are Mahometans, and 214,500 Hindoos. The Seiks have here a place of worship of great repute, and several families of Armenians have long had a fixed residence here.

Gaya and its pilgrimages.

Gaya, the capital of the Bahar district, is a place of great sanctity, being the scene of many Brahminical legends. It is the resort of numerous pilgrims. These poor creatures have laboured under gross oppression and extortion from the priests, being even subjected to torture till they consented to give an offering deemed suited to their circumstances. The British have prohibited all forced exactions, and made the priests amenable to the criminal police for any acts of violence, or for refusing to perform the ceremonies required when the pilgrim makes his voluntary gift. In times of peace the number of pilgrims and their attendants is reckoned not less than 100,000. Many breaches of the peace arise out of this great concourse, and the priests have a character for ignorance and immorality ill fitted for disseminating any improvement in morals among those who aspire at the benefit of their intercourse. Some miles from Gaya there is a granite rock in which a great cavern, and some temples containing Indian inscriptions, have been formed [b].

Boglipoor.

The district of Boglipoor, in the eastern part of this province, consists of a great variety of surface; hills, rocks, woods, and thickets. Some iron ore is found in it. The inhabitants bear a much superior character to that of the south-eastern natives of Bengal; but it contains among the mountains a barbarian population of extremely predatory habits, who mostly follow a superstition of their own, while some of the wealthiest have fallen under the influence of a low caste of Brahmins, who have instructed them to worship Durga, and say prayers before a beel tree. Both sexes of these mountaineers are addicted to intoxication. They pay no taxes. Some of the chiefs receive pensions from the British government for maintaining the public peace. These are generally spent in liquor at the town of Boglipoor. The

[b] Asiat. Researches, vol. I.

town is chiefly inhabited by Mahometans, who have a college here in a state of great decay.

Monghir. Monghir is a celebrated town and fortress, beautifully situated on a bend of the Ganges. It was a place of great importance under the Mogul government. It was strengthened by Cossim Ali, when he intended to throw off his dependence on the English, who had raised him to the throne, but was taken in nine days. It was a place of importance, a station for a brigade, and a depôt of ammunition; but, since the British dominions have extended beyond Delhi, Allahabad has been chosen for a depôt, and the fort of Monghir has been neglected. The population is about 30,000. The most respected place of worship here is the monument of Peer Shah Hossein Lohauni, where both Hindoos and Mahometans make frequent offerings, especially on their marriages, and other interesting occasions. The gardeners, tailors, and carpenters of Monghir, are noted for their expertness. Much of the army clothing is made here, and they excel in making European furniture, carriages, and palanquins. Hardware also, though coarse, is extremely cheap. About four miles from Monghir there is a hot spring called Seetacoond, of a temperature of 130° or upwards. Not far from Monghir the Afghâns built a rampart which formed a connection between two mountain chains, to protect the country from hostile invasions.

Its artisans.

Province of Bengal. Proceeding down the Ganges, we come to the most important province in India, occupying the lower part of the course of that great river. This is Bengal,—a province more deserving of the appellation of a kingdom than any to which we have yet turned our attention, and which will merit a minute description.

Its position and physical aspect. Bengal enjoys a position admirably adapted for security against the attacks of foreign enemies. The whole northern frontier is skirted with a belt of low land, from ten to twenty miles broad, covered with a most exuberant and impenetrable vegetation, particularly the augeah grass, which is sometimes thirty feet in height, and two inches thick. Beyond this,

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are the mountains connected with the Himālah, the population of which, though warlike, is thin and of limited number. On the south, the shore is almost inaccessible by sea, on account of the shallows with which it is every where beset, having only one harbour, and that difficult of access. On the east it is protected by rugged mountains and mighty rivers from any inroads on the side of the Birman empire. It is only on the west that the approach of an enemy could be apprehended, and here also the natural barrier is in most places strong.—The Ganges, running in a south-easterly direction, divides Bengal into two nearly equal portions. Taken in general, it is a flat country, containing only a few elevated tracts. The parts liable to annual inundations were called *Beng*, whence probably the name which we give to the whole province. The higher lying parts were called *Barendra*. In the southern districts rice grows most luxuriantly; as we ascend the river, the proportion of wheat and barley progressively increases.—The most important productions of Bengal are tobacco, indigo, cotton, the mulberry, and the poppy, each of which, in general, requires land appropriate to its own cultivation. One great object of the farmer is to have an equable supply of water, which is frequently obtained by means of embankments crossing the country, and preventing the rain which falls from flowing off. Much care is requisite to protect the seed, when sown, from the depredations of numerous birds, and afterwards in several districts the produce must be protected by watching from the incursions of wild boars, elephants, buffaloes, and deer. Maize and millet require protection during the night from the large bats. The grain is stored in jars of unbaked earth, or in baskets made of large twigs. The implements of husbandry are coarse and ill adapted to their office, the plough merely scratching the surface, without turning it up. A number of them in succession, each drawn by a single yoke of very small oxen, are employed to deepen the furrows. The miscellaneous exercise of different kinds

Produce and agriculture.

of industry is numbered among the causes which retard the progress of agriculture. The Bengalese can readily turn from his usual occupation to another branch of the same art, or to an entirely new occupation, and succeeds surprisingly in his earliest efforts. The division of labour is prevented from being carried to any extent by the want of capital. Every manufacturer and artisan works on his own account, and conducts the whole process of his art, from the formation of his tools to the sale of his produce. This versatility is certainly a valuable resource in those cases in which the demand for any class of productions ceases,—a frequent cause of misery in manufacturing countries, from the helplessness of individuals who are thrown out of their usual employment, and unfit for any other. Many of the farm servants in Bengal are purchased slaves, or bond-servants, but they are not treated with any harshness, or even distance, by their masters. The culture of potatoes has been introduced here with very beneficial effect. A great abundance of fish is supplied by the rivers; the best and highest flavoured of which is the mango fish, so called from appearing during the mango season. Mullet abounds in all the rivers, and may be killed with small shot, as they swim against the stream, with their heads partly out of the water. Bengal enjoys great facilities of internal commerce; innumerable boats incessantly navigate the Ganges, its tributaries, and its branches. The construction of these vessels varies in a curious manner with the kind of navigation to which they are destined. The flat clinker boats used in the western districts are different from those employed in the wide and stormy navigation of the lower Ganges. The latter are lofty, unwieldy, and deep. All the Bengalese boats are without keels, which would render them unsafe, as they often ground in the shallows. For this reason they are not so well adapted for sailing. In descending the river they are carried before the stream; in ascending, they are dragged along with the track rope; in the winding branches at the mouths of the Ganges, the

Commerce and inland navigation.

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principal reliance is on the oar. The original manner of conducting commerce seems to have been by hauts or open fairs, held on particular days, in an open plain. These are still very frequent. Petty traders take advantage of the days kept as festivals of the Hindoo gods and Mahometan saints, to find a market for their wares. Many places have bazars, or daily markets, in which articles in common use are regularly sold. These are kept by established shopkeepers, and frequented by small venders. There is no uniformity of weights and measures. They have standards, but these are local, very numerous, and different even in the same place for different articles of merchandise. The currency is silver and cowries. Copper has never been introduced, and gold seldom appears, except in Calcutta. Bankers were introduced from the west, at the time of the Mahometan conquest. Previously they were few in number, and of low rank. At all the markets there are money changers, with loads of cowries, who, in the early part of the day, give cowries for rupees, and in the evening give the hucksters rupees for their cowries, as being more easily transported. Their profit on the two transactions is about a thirty-sixth part. The same class are also in the habit of advancing money to improvident servants, on their monthly wages, charging a profit of four seventy-fourths per month, on their advances, but occasionally losing their principal.

City of Calcutta.

Its situation.

This province contains the now celebrated city of Calcutta, the metropolis of the British power in India. It is situated about 100 miles from the sea, on the east side of the western branch of the Ganges, called the Hoogly, or Calcutta river. It is rendered somewhat unhealthy by being in the vicinity of extensive muddy lakes, and an immense forest. The jungle has been cleared away to a certain extent; broad straight roads are cut in the direction of the prevailing winds, and the streets are well drained; but the air of the place still participates in the disadvantages belonging to its general situation. At high

water, the river is a mile in breadth, and at ebb tide exposes a great extent of dry sand banks. On approaching this city from the sea, a stranger is much struck with its magnificent appearance; the spires of the churches, temples, and mosques, the strong and regular citadel of Fort William, the extent of the buildings, the expansion of adjoining villas and gardens, present a picture very different from the state of the same locality a hundred years ago, when it was a mere village, inhabited chiefly by husbandmen. It extends above six miles along the river. The esplanade between the citadel and the town leaves a spacious opening, in which stands the new government-house, erected by the Marquis Wellesley; and on a line with this edifice is a range of magnificent houses, ornamented with spacious verandahs. The architecture of the houses is Grecian, and the pillars of the verandahs too elevated to afford the requisite shade in this hot climate, in the mornings and evenings. One of the most memorable objects is the Black Hole, the prison in which Soobah Sarajeh ud Dowla, on taking the fort in 1757, shut up the garrison, consisting of 146 persons, of whom 123 perished miserably before morning, suffocated by the confined air. It now forms part of a warehouse, and is filled with merchandise. A monument of a pyramidal form is erected opposite to the gate, to commemorate the unfortunate persons who perished by this act of cruelty. It has suffered by lightning, and is rather in a decayed state. The government house is the most remarkable public edifice. The others are, the town house, the court of justice, and two English churches. It contains a Greek church, an Armenian, and some Romish churches belonging to the Portuguese, many Hindoo temples, and Mahometan mosques. The botanic garden is beautifully situated on the west bank of the river, on a bend of the Hoogly, hence called the Garden Reach. That part of the town which is inhabited by natives, and called the black town, extends to the north of the other, to which it exhibits a wretched contrast. Its streets are narrow, dirty, and unpaved. It contains some

Buildings.

Black Hole.

Indian Quarter.

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two-storied houses of brick, but the great majority are mud hovels roofed with small tiles, with side walls of mats, bamboos, and other combustible materials. Hence conflagrations are frequent. The English houses are all detached, each possessing a piece of ground surrounded by a high wall. They cost large sums of money, and stand in constant need of repair. The destructive ravages committed on the timber by the white ants often occasion complete ruin in the interior, while the house has on the outside every appearance of being perfectly sound. Fort William stands about a quarter of a mile below the town. It is of an octagonal form, and superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India. The building of it was commenced by Lord Clive, after the battle of Plassey. It has cost the East India Company altogether two millions Sterling. It is too extensive to be useful as a tenable post in a case of extremity; requiring 10,000 men to defend its works, and containing 15,000, a number which would be able to keep the field. The works are scarcely above the level of the country,—a circumstance which excites surprise in the natives the first time they see it, as they connect the idea of strength with elevation; they generally mistake the barracks for the fort. The strata under the soil in this neighbourhood, are of a clayey tenacious texture, and on boring to a depth of 140 feet, afford no springs. At a depth of thirty-five, a stratum of decayed wood is found, the debris, no doubt, of some ancient forest. The population of Calcutta is computed at half a million. In 1798, the number of houses, shops, and other habitations in the town, belonging to individuals, was as follows:—

Fort William.

Population, society, and manners.

To natives of Great Britain,	4,300
Armenians,	640
Portuguese, and other Christians,	2,650
Hindoos,	56,160
Mahometans,	14,700
Chinese,	10
Total houses, independently of those belonging to the Fort and the Company,	78,460

The genteel society of Calcutta is highly convivial. It is customary to rise early. Dinner is generally after sunset, and the convivial parties are kept up till midnight. The provisions are excellent, and liberally served; and as they quickly spoil in this climate, the remains are thrown out to the pariah dogs: the prejudices of the natives not allowing them to use any thing prepared by persons not belonging to their own caste or religion. The lower orders of the Portuguese cannot consume the whole, and they are cleared away by a variety of animals, chiefly the pariah or wandering dogs, and immense flocks of crows, kites, and vultures, which almost cover the houses and gardens. The adjutant stork tenders his assistance during the day, the jackals and foxes mingle with the pariah dogs during the night, and altogether keep up a hideous howling. Game is to be had in great abundance. Madeira and claret wines are used. They are exposed to much damage from the musk-rat, that animal communicating to every bottle which it passes over a disagreeable flavour, which renders it unfit for use. The tables are covered with a profusion of delicious fruit, obtained at a very moderate expense. The usual mode of visiting is in palanquins, but many gentlemen have carriages on a construction suited to the climate; and the breed of horses has been greatly improved. The British inhabitants are hospitable and generous to their countrymen in cases in which their assistance is required. The Asiatic Society, established in this city by Sir W. Jones, has proved highly useful for concentrating such knowledge as is occasionally obtained of Asia, and particularly of Indostan. Many British merchants here have attained great opulence, and live in a splendid style. The Armenians are very respectable, and form the most numerous body of foreign merchants. Some of the higher classes of them are usually invited to the public entertainments of the English. The Portuguese houses of agency are, next to the English, the most numerous. Many of the Portuguese approach very near to the na-

Asiatic society.

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tives in appearance and manners. Some Hindoo traders have acquired enormous fortunes. Some of them have apartments fitted up in the European fashion, and in the most splendid style, while other rooms in their houses contain the images of their deities, decorated with jewels. Some of them keep English coaches and equipages. There is more intercourse between the Europeans and the natives in Calcutta than in other parts of India. The lower orders of Europeans have acquired a Hindoo appearance, and the Hindoos in too many instances contract from the most worthless of the Europeans a brutality and coarseness of character, habits of drunkenness, and other moral deformities. The business of the courts of justice also, with all its blessed fruits, generates in numerous individuals a spirit of low chicane. Dishonesty is extremely prevalent, yet the property of Europeans is respected in a surprising degree by the natives, even when exposed to great temptations.

Chandernagore.

Chandernagore is a French settlement on the west bank of the river Hoogly, sixteen miles from Calcutta. The position of this town is preferable to that of Calcutta. The population of it in 1814 was 41,377, and the revenue which it yielded 32,154 rupees. The Dutch settlement of Chinsura is eighteen miles up the river from Calcutta, on the west side. It was first the seat of a Dutch factory in 1656. The Danish settlement of Serampore, twelve miles above Calcutta, has a lively and pleasing appearance, the houses being well built, and whitened with chunam. It is narrow and long, extending about a mile along the banks. It has a small saluting battery, but no fortifications. It is the head quarters of the European Protestant missionaries, and has become a place of great literary activity; the proficiency attained in the eastern languages in this place being very extensive.

Chinsura.

Serampore.

The Sunderbunds.

The dreary regions at the mouths of the Ganges, called the Sunderbunds, consist of a labyrinth of rivers and salt creeks, forming a complete inland navigation. All the

banks consist of alternate strata of sand and black mould, bearing the appearance of recent deposition, and showing the shifting nature of the streams, and the mutability of these numerous islands. The navigation to Calcutta is by two passages, more than 200 miles through a thick forest, where at one time the channel is so narrow that the branches of the trees on the opposite shores meet over the vessel, while at another it presents a spacious expanse of water, and distant shores finely fringed with wood. The only inhabitants of the forests are wild beasts, excepting here and there a solitary fakeer, or Mahometan devotee,—persons greatly respected, and supposed to be divinely protected from the prowling tigers. Wood-cutters also frequent these places. The marshy parts of the forests do not admit of cultivation. Some of the drier parts might undoubtedly be cultivated; but the impenetrable forest is valued as a strong natural bulwark against maritime invasion. Large quantities of excellent salt are manufactured in this quarter, and the article is esteemed particularly sacred, as being obtained from the mud of the Ganges. The forests also furnish Calcutta with an inexhaustible supply of wood for fuel, and other purposes. This vast tract is considered as without owners, and therefore claimed as the property of government.

Sagor Island.

Sagor Island is twenty miles long and five broad. The anchorage is healthier at this part than higher up the river. It is a celebrated scene of Hindoo pilgrimage, being esteemed a place of great sanctity, because it is situated at the junction of the holiest branch of the Ganges with the ocean. Here many aged persons make a voluntary sacrifice of their lives. Children also are sacrificed, by being thrown into the water, particularly by people belonging to the eastern districts, who sometimes, when apprehensive of not having progeny, promise, that if they have five, the fifth shall be devoted in its infancy to the Ganges. Similar immolations take place at Allahabad, at Bânsbariah in the district of Hoogly, and at Chogdah in that of Nuddea. The sacrifices

Human immolations.

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of the aged are sanctioned by express tenets in their sacred books; but the sacrifices of children are not any where enjoined; such acts are the offspring of spontaneous superstition, binding itself by voluntary vows. In 1801, this dreary island was only inhabited by a few of the devotees called Gosseins, who claimed contributions from the pilgrims and itinerant merchants who resorted to it. Obsequies are performed for deceased ancestors, and an ancient sage called Capila, who is said to have lived 2000 years before Christ, has a temple here, in which he is worshipped as a god. Religious mendicants sometimes take up their abode at the temple, and are often devoured by tigers. Ruins of embankments and works of masonry are found here, which show that the island has at one time been inhabited. Of late years, the attention of government has been directed to this island, and it has been let out in portions to an association consisting of Europeans conjoined with natives. In this instance, the government has relaxed from that rigid policy which it has on other occasions invariably observed, of prohibiting Europeans from becoming landholders. This was necessary that the undertaking might be conducted with the requisite vigour, as the speedy clearing of the island of the shelter in which the tigers lurk, is necessary to make it habitable. In April, 1819, one-fifth was already cleared, and a broad passage effected through the remainder, in consequence of which the tigers gradually retired. In the course of these proceedings, several vestiges of old buildings were discovered.

Commencement of cultivation.

Recently formed island.

An island two miles long, and half a mile broad, called Edmonstone's Island, in lat. 21° 5′ N. and long. 88° 20′ E. has emerged from the water, since the year 1813. It is covered with the trunks of trees floated down the river, many of which have taken root and vegetated, while creeping plants have bound together the accumulated sand, pushing upwards to the surface, in proportion as fresh portions were either deposited from the water or drifted by the wind; the dung of the birds by which the place is fre-

quented has promoted vegetation, and contributed to the formation of a fertile mould. The chief creeping plant of this description is the *Ipomea pes capræ*. Some species of *salsola* likewise contribute to the same end. It is visited by wood-cutters, and fishermen, who erect huts on it, but no permanent habitation has as yet been established.

District of Bachergunge.

The district of Bachergunge is at the mouth of the Puddah, or great stream of the Ganges, on the sea shore, east of the Sunderbunds, and similar in physical character, only that it is cultivated and populous. In 1584 it was laid waste by an inundation, and afterwards by the ravages of the Mughs, a ferocious banditti, who live on the eastern frontier of the province, and who were aided by the Portuguese settlers in Chittagong.—The district of Jessore, on the coast of Calcutta, partly consists of a similar territory; it has been infested by river pirates, who live in the jungles. These places also are inhabited or frequented by salt-makers. This territory has been somewhat better cultivated since the land was settled on the Zemindars as their property, in fee-simple. The rent which they realise, amounts to about a fifth part of the government land tax. It contains 1,200,000 inhabitants, in the proportion of nine Mahometans to seven Hindoos.—The district of Hoogly also improves, but much of it continues in a state of nature. It is particularly annoyed by gang-robbers, who accompany their robberies with torture. This crime, though somewhat diminished by the vigilance of the British police, is still extremely prevalent. The river Hoogly, from which the district derives its name, is formed by the junction of two branches given off by the Ganges, called the Cossimbazar, and the Jellinghy. The influx of the tide here is sometimes inconceivably rapid, occasioning, at Calcutta, an instantaneous rise of five feet. On its approach all boats must quit the shore, their place of safety being the deep water in the middle of the river. The town of Hoogly is large, well inhabited, and thriving, but not equal to what it was under the Mogul govern-

Jessore.

Hoogly.

Tides.

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ment, when all the duties on foreign commerce were collected there. In 1632, it was the scene of a tragical slaughter of the Portuguese, when the Moguls took it by assault. Most of the Portuguese ships lying at anchor were blown up by their own people in despair, so that out of sixty-four large vessels, fifty-two grabs, and 200 sloops, only one grab and two sloops got away. Here, in 1688, the English fought their first battle in Bengal against the Nabob's troops, in which they were successful, though it was followed by a peace on conditions of a submissive tendency. In the district of Nuddea, adjoining to Calcutta on the north, is Plassey, celebrated for the bloody route which decided the fate of Bengal in favour of the English, under Colonel Clive, against the Mogul Nabob. The town of Nuddea contains a Brahminical seminary, which the English have of late years encouraged by the institution of prizes.

Nuddea.

Plassey.

Midnapoor. The district of Midnapoor, on the confines of Orissa, is only partially cultivated. It suffered severely by a dearth in 1799. Here there is no seminary properly so called, that is, none for teaching the Hindoo and Mahometan law; but there are numerous schools for reading and arithmetic. The character of the teachers is on a scale of morality which must appear to persons of our habits ludicrous, or perhaps lamentable. An eminent teacher in Midnapoor was found on a criminal trial, to be a habitual thief; yet the circumstance excited no surprise or disappointment, and was attended with no lowering of the individual in society. But we are not to suppose, from the prevalence of such instances, that there is a total want of honour among the people. There are temptations to which all are conscious that they habitually yield, yet there are others which appear to our habits much stronger, over which their sense of honour never fails to obtain a heroic triumph.

The Sontal race. Midnapoor contains an indigent insulted race called Sontals, who are considered as outcasts, and not allowed to settle in the villages of the other Hindoos. They have villages allowed them between the cultivated lands of the

other inhabitants and the unoccupied tracts, and their neighbourhood thus serves as a protection to the former from the depredations of wild animals. They are said to be industrious in their habits, but from their ignorance of business, they are egregiously imposed on by money lenders, who often extort from them 100 per cent. on the sums which they advance. The people of Midnapoor are, on the whole, a simple and peaceable race, compared to those Hindoos who have more intercourse with the courts of justice. BOOK XLVII.

To the north of Midnapoor and Hoogly is the district of Burdwan, distinguished by a comparatively high state of cultivation, like a garden in the midst of a wilderness. Its inhabitants amounted, in 1811, to 856,000, being at the rate of 476 to each square mile. It continues to improve, new villages are formed, and the number of brick buildings increases. It is the most fertile district in all India. the next to it is Tanjore in the Carnatic. District of Burdwan.

To the north of this are the districts of Birboom and Moorshedabad, the former of which contains coal, though not of good quality. Moorshedabad is the chief seat of the silk-weaving manufacture. Here gang-robbery, called "dacoity," is the most common crime. The city of Moorshedabad stands on the Cossimbazar branch of the Ganges, extending eight miles along both sides of the river. It is unfortified, the streets are narrow and almost impassable for carriages, and the buildings very indifferent. The streets are badly drained, and even in some parts overrun with jungle; the air confined and unhealthy. The city seems rapidly going to decay, unless some exertions to improve it are made on a decided plan and a comprehensive scale. In 1704, this city succeeded Dacca as the seat of government, under the Nabob Jaffier Khan. In 1757, when the English seized the government of the country, it was superseded by Calcutta, but continued the station of the collector-general till 1771. Moorshedabad is still a place of extensive trade. About a mile south from it is the town of Birboom. Moorshedabad.

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Cossimbazar, on an island. It may be reckoned the port of Moorshedabad. Here the best silk stockings in Bengal, which are all wire-knit, are manufactured. In the midst of the adjoining marshes is to be found the magnificent palace of Motidchil[c]. So mild is the climate of this place, says M. Lagoux de Flaix, that the silk worms spin their silk the whole year round on the mulberry trees, with which the island is covered. The branch of the river which goes by the same name is a part of the most sacred line of the Ganges[d].

District of Rajshahy.

Proceeding northward we enter Rajshahy, a large district, which occupies the centre of the province, and is intersected in its whole length by the Ganges. Its capital is Nattore, between which and Dacca in the south-east, there is, during the inundations, a navigation of 100 miles across the shallow lakes called jeels; the villages and clumps only appearing above the water, which has a gentle current of half a mile per hour.

City of Rajemahl.

The town of Rajemahl, with its adjacent territory, is now attached to the Boglipoor division of Bahar, though in the province of Bengal. Here we find the magnificent ruins of the palaces which it contained when it was a Mahometan capital, and the seat of an important military government, commanding the famous pass of Telliagurry, and other mountainous passes between Bengal and Bahar, which were of so much consequence when the two Soubahs were hostile and independent. The town has now fallen to complete decay, though still a large place, and the resident population about 30,000, besides a number of travellers whom it always contains. There is in this neighbourhood a tribe called Tooppahs, who live on pillage, and dwell in villages under chiefs called Manchis. They have retained, from time immemorial, in the midst of their mountains, their wild independence, their manners, and their religion[e].

In the north-west corner of the province is the district

[c] Pennant View, II. 294.
[d] Essai, tome ii. p. 376.
[e] Shaw, Asiatic Researches.

of Purneah, bounded on the north by the Morung hills and woods, which separate it from the territory of Nepâl. Here the winter is colder than in the preceding districts, hoar frost is frequent in it, and proves injurious to the leguminous crops. Yet the district enjoys on the whole great advantages both in soil and climate, and is very productive. The potato has been introduced, and is regularly cultivated, though not used as a leading article of food. In 1801, the population of Purneah had nearly doubled in forty years, and consisted of nearly three millions; the Hindoos being to the Mahometans as fifty-seven to forty-three; but the latter have great influence, being in possession of a great part of the land. Purneah, the chief town, stands on a surface of nearly nine square miles, but contains only 40,000 inhabitants. This, like many other places in India, has been progressively deteriorating in salubrity without any apparent cause, and in 1815 had become so destructive to all classes, that it was thought necessary to remove the civil authorities elsewhere [f].

District of Purneah.

Proceeding eastward, we enter Dinagepoor, which lies also a little south. In the winter months the cold here is considerable. The Europeans have fire in their rooms, and wear woollen clothing, while the natives, not so well provided, shiver in the night, and rise in the morning helpless and benumbed, till revived by the solar heat. In 1808, the population consisted of three millions, of whom 2,100,000 were Mahometans, and 900,000 Hindoos. The inhabitants, dastardly in the extreme, are the prey of gangs of robbers, whose depredations are facilitated by the numerous rivers. Ghoraghât, in this district, is a town and zemindary, which, like some others in the same quarter, was, at an early period of the Mahometan conquest, given to Afghân chiefs, who zealously propagated their faith. It produces raw silk, gunnies, (or sackcloth,) plenty of fruit, and Tanyan horses. The ruins of Gour, the ancient capital of Bengal, are situated in the district of Dinagepoor, twenty-five miles from

District of Dinagepoor.

Ruins of Gour.

[f] Mr. Colebrooke. Dr. Francis Buchanan.

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Rajemahl. Several villages stand on its site; and it contains the remains of a mosque of black stone[g].

Eastern districts. Rungpoor.

The district of Rungpoor occupies the north-eastern extremity of Bengal, on both sides of the river Brahmapootra, having Bootân on the north, and Assam on the east. It labours under the local disadvantage of a frontier exposed to five independent states, Nepâl, Bootân, Cooch-Bahar, Assam, and the Garrows. It contains several swamps, and some beautiful clusters of lakes. To the east of the rivers Brahmapootra and Chonkosh, the country is interspersed with a number of detached hills. Bamboos are extremely abundant. The cocoa trees are very productive of well ripened fruit. The different grains are cultivated. Tobacco is the staple produce, sugar and indigo are also reared. Elephants are numerous; and the harmless rhinoceros common. Although here, as elsewhere, property of all kinds is secured by the British laws, yet the people have, in this quarter, little confidence in such settlements, not being able to conceive that the possessor of large sums of money can escape the rapacity of any sovereign power. The upper classes are ill informed, and their mode of living is contracted. They do not associate with one another, but lead secluded lives, surrounded by flattering dependents and amusing mendicants. The frontiers adjoining to Bootân and Morung are infested with a set of wandering robbers and murderers, called Keechuks or Geedarmars. The natives are unhealthy, and the children feeble. This country being a portion of the Hindoo Camroop, or region of sensuality, prostitutes form a regular society, subject to a separate priesthood. The women thus set apart undergo in early life the ceremony of marriage with a plantain tree. The Mahometans are more numerous here than the Hindoos in the proportion of ten to nine, and are gaining ground. But the two religions are on perfectly friendly terms, and the people apply frequently to one another's saints and deities when their own appear to fail. There are a few persons, named Asuric, who belong neither to

State of morals.

[g] Dr. F. Buchanan.

the one nor to the other religion. The name given to them is equivalent to atheist. The town of Rungpoor, the capital, is a scattered place, containing about 18,000 inhabitants. The public offices of the country, however, are not here, but at a place called Dhap, where the Europeans reside. The houses, about 300 in number, extend along an excellent road, bordered with trees. Rangamatty is a town which was formerly inhabited by several Mogul chiefs, but is now a miserable place. Goalpara, a town on the left bank of the Brahmapootra, twenty-three miles from the frontiers of Assam, is the principal mart of the intercourse with the Assamese, who bring coarse cloths, stick-lac, tar, wax, and occasionally gold, and take salt in return. But the Assamese are so disorderly, and so little to be trusted, (sometimes murdering their creditors,) that this intercourse is very inconsiderable. There are about twenty families of Portuguese here, who have entirely adopted the dress of the natives, can neither read nor write, and only understand a few words of Portuguese. The natives stand in some awe of them as a more vigorous race than themselves, and employ them as messengers for demanding payment of debts, and other bullying purposes. They have little form of religion, and no priest. Sometimes they go to Bowal near Dacca, to have their marriages duly solemnized; but in general they content themselves with a public acknowledgment of marriage at home. There are large forests in this quarter, the timber of which may probably turn to good account; but its durability and other qualities have not been yet subjected to the requisite trials [h].

Rangamatty.

Goalpara.

Descendants of the Portuguese.

The district of Cooch-Bahar formed the western division of the ancient kingdom of Camroop. The term Cooch, the name of a tribe, is attached to it to distinguish it from the large province of Bahar, of which Patna is the capital. One portion of the original Cooch tribe, called Panicooch, preserves a language quite different from the Bengalese, and has not adopted the Brahminical religion. A great proportion of the people live in extreme indigence; and some years ago they were in the habit of selling their

District of Cooch-Bahar.

[h] Mr J. Grant. Dr. F. Buchanan.

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children for slaves without scruple; but that traffic has been suppressed. This state was, for many years, subjected to great anarchy and misery, which the British attempted to remedy by temporary measures; but, in 1813, they took the management of it into their own hands, and reduced the Raja, who is of a low and cruel disposition, to a state of real dependence, without that semblance of freedom which is generally left to those who are friendly and of good character [i].

District of Mymunsingh.

Its improvement.

To the south of Rungpoor is the district of Mymunsingh, intersected by the Brahmapootra. This district is greatly improved of late years. The country near Bygonbarry, the capital, which in 1790 was a complete waste, the haunt of wild beasts and river pirates, is now well inhabited. The Hindoos have some gratuitous schools for their own learning. It is reckoned disgraceful to receive payment for teaching. In 1813, the number of gang robberies said to have been committed was sixty-three, and the gangs were exceedingly formidable. The capital, Bygonbarry, is of modern creation. The other large town, Seragegunge, is on the Jhinai river; it appears in no map, yet it is thought by some to be the most trading place in Bengal, next to Calcutta [k].

Silhet District.

Silhet, a district to the east of Mymunsingh, is the most easterly of the British provinces of Bengal. It is thought to be only 350 miles from the province of Yunan in China; but no intercourse has taken place between the two countries in that direction, nor have the intervening regions been explored. On the east it is bounded by a lofty chain of mountains continued from Arracan and Chittagong, inhabited by savage tribes, who rank very low in the scale of humanity. The town of Silhet is surrounded with peaked conical hills. During the inundation of the Soormah and other rivers, the greater part of the land is laid under water. There is a navigation at that season between it and Dacca, over fields which produce rice during winter, but during the rains are covered with eight or ten feet of wa-

[i] Dr. F. Buchanan, Description of Hindostan by Walter Hamilton, Esq. vol. I. p. 214.

[k] Hamilton's Description, I. p. 189.

ter. Rice is the chief produce. But the cultivation is greatly impeded by the inroads of the Kookies, a savage race of predatory mountaineers, who inhabit the Tiperah and Cachar hills, to which they instantly retire after their sudden incursions. This is one of the three only localities in India found capable of producing good oranges; the other two being Chandpoor in the Dacca district, and Sautghur at the foot of the eastern Ghauts, or passes leading from Bangalore to Madras. There are large plantations of orange trees, like forests, in Silhet; and the quantity of fruit annually exported is very great[1]. On the spot they often cost no more than one rupee per thousand. Silhet abounds in lime, which is transported by water during the inundations. A sort of coal has also been found here, but of indifferent quality. The landed proprietors have the character of bad managers. They fall into arrears in their payments to government, so that their estates are frequently exposed to sale: they are also irregular and litigious in their transactions with one another. There is a race of mountaineers called Cosseahs, who at one time occupied part of the low country, but scarcely ever paid the revenue due to government, and always fled to their native mountains when any attempt was made at coercion. Being in consequence dispossessed of their lands in the low country, they in revenge afterwards committed many murders and other enormities, till forts with garrisons of sepoys were established to hold them in check. The Cosseahs are said to be an honest, fair-dealing set of people, and marked by strict veracity, but outrageously vindictive. It is expected that the intercourse now established will have a tendency to civilize them. This, however, is always uncertain. It may impart to them a new set of vices. The practice of selling their children and others for slaves, has always been carried to a great extent in the district of Silhet. Here the Moguls, according to Abul Fazel, procured eunuch slaves for the seraglio. Some of the free natives are still invei-

Its oranges.

Changes of property.

The Cosseahs.

Slave markets

[1] Rennel's Memoir. Colebrook. Dr. F. Buchanan. Hamilton's Description, &c. vol. I. p. 191.

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gled off for sale to the different towns of Bengal; but such attempts are now rarely successful, being vigilantly resisted by the British government.

Tiperah.

To the south of Silhet lies the district of Tiperah, named also Rooshenabad, of large dimensions, forming the chief eastern boundary of Bengal. Its limits to the east are indefinite, that country being extremely wild, overgrown with jungle, and abounding with elephants. That portion of Tiperah which lies near the river Megna is rich, well cultivated, and commercial. The manick or zemindar of Tiperah possesses an independent sovereignty beyond the hills, but usually resides in the British head quarters at Comillah. The district contains no large towns, but many of moderate size, such as Luckipoor, Daoodcaundy and Chandpoor. It was an independent Hindoo principality long after the Mahometans had possession of Bengal, though Dacca, the capital of the latter, was in its near neighbourhood. It was not till 1733, when the Mogul power was itself falling to pieces, that Tiperah was brought under its full influence. In 1765, it devolved to the British government. In 1801, it was estimated to contain 750,000 inhabitants, in the proportion of four Hindoos to three Mahometans; but this was undoubtedly an exaggeration. It long continued one of the most disturbed districts of the province; but, of late years, gang robberies have been almost entirely suppressed, and other heinous offences have become comparatively rare. The territory round Chandpoor is famous for producing the very finest oranges in India [m].

Dacca Jelalpoor.

On the west of Tiperah is the district of Dacca Jelalpoor, distinguished as the granary of rice for Bengal. Since the famine of 1787, this district has been progressively improving. The landed property is divided into small portions called talooks, which are subdivided again to an extreme degree of minuteness. Hence civil causes, on the subject of property, are numerous and intricate. In 1801 this district contained nearly a million of inhabitants, one half Hindoos, and the other Mahometans. The

[m] W. Hamilton's Description, &c. vol. I. p. 176.

change in social condition, freedom of industry, and security of property, is similar here to what it has been in the adjoining districts. The chief town, Dacca, is situated beyond the principal stream of the Ganges, about 100 miles above its mouth by land, but 400 by the winding course of the river. It is admirably situated for trade, is on the whole wealthy, and in population and extent the third city in Bengal. It has, at different times, enjoyed great splendour and prosperity. In the time of Aurengzebe it seems to have been a rival to the greatest cities, with the exception of Gour. Again, in 1774, it was made the centre of law and revenue, and exhibited great opulence. When the provincial council was abolished, and judges and collectors were appointed to the different districts, it fell off; but the mercantile and industrious classes have not decreased, and its limits have been extended. Towards the end of the seventeenth century Dacca was the residence of Azim Ushân, Aurengzebe's grandson, who began and nearly completed a magnificent palace, now in ruins. It contained, at the same time, an enormous gun of hammered iron, weighing about 64,814 pounds, and the shot for it must have weighed 400 pounds; but it is not probable that it ever was discharged. The present city extends six miles along the river, the houses made of brick and thatch, the streets very narrow and crooked. The thatch houses are generally burned down once, and often twice, in the year, the owners looking on with indifference. Their valuables, being contained in earthen pots sunk beneath the floor, do not suffer, and the houses are easily rebuilt at the expense of a few rupees. This city formerly manufactured beautiful fabrics, which were held in great estimation at the court of Delhi, and also at that of France. Its prosperity has been materially affected by the French revolution. In 1801 its population was estimated at 200,000, though then comparatively in a state of decline, and the Mahometans were to the Hindoos in the proportion of 145 to 130. The society of the place is diversified by many respectable Greek, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants settled in it.

City of Dacca.

Manufactures.

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The inhabitants are remarkably orderly, and seem attached to the existing state of things.

District of Chittagong.

The district of Chittagong is situated to the south of Tiperah, in the south-eastern extremity of Bengal, on that part of the coast which turns round to the south-east, forming the commencement of the region called "the Peninsula beyond the Ganges." It is more detached than any other portion of the province, being in contact only with Tiperah in a narrow part of its northern extremity. On the west, it is bounded by the bay of Bengal; on the east, by the Birman empire; and on the south, by Arracan. About two-thirds of the soil are unproductive and hilly, and one-third plain and arable; the former being chiefly the parts furthest from the sea-coast. Its capital, Islamabad.

Islamabad, on the Chittagong river, is, according to M. Wahl, the *Bangala* of the Arabian writers; it is an accessible sea-port, well situated for external commerce, as well as for the construction of large ships, of which a considerable number are built annually, both of imported and indigenous timber. Being reckoned a healthy country, it is the frequent resort of invalids from other parts of the province. Its inhabitants consist of Mahomedans, Hindoos, and Mughs. The Mahomedans are to the Hindoos as three to two. The Mughs are natives of Arracan, who have been driven from that country by the oppressions of their chiefs, or of the Birman government by whom they have been subdued, or who have been induced by predatory habits to live in the most rugged localities of this district. These are a much more vigorous race than the Bengalese natives; but addicted to murder as well as robbery. A considerable profit accrues to government from the elephants caught in the forests of Chittagong, which are possessed of excellent qualities, and well fitted for the camp and the chase. At an early period of its intercourse with Europe, Chittagong was inhabited by some irregular Portuguese, who were in the practice of pillaging the adjoining countries. The hills in the north and east, are inhabited by a savage people called Choomeas. Beyond them are the Kookies, who live in a state of

Inhabitants.

The Mughs.

perpetual war, and esteem bravery, cunning, and the slaughter of their enemies, the highest merits that any man can possess. The land of this district is divided into very small possessions, and there are always numerous litigations on questions of boundaries [n].

Isle of Sundeep.

At the mouth of the great Megna, formed by the united streams of the Ganges and Brahmapootra, is the isle of Sundeep, which was taken from the Moguls, and erected into an independent principality in the end of the 18th century by Sebastian Gonzales. It was taken in 1616 by the Arracanese, who, under the name of Mughs, infested and devastated the neighbouring parts of Bengal, carrying off the inhabitants into slavery. It was afterwards taken by the Moguls in 1666, and devolved to the East India Company along with the whole province of Bengal.

Countries in the northern mountains.

We shall now take a view of the mountainous countries which lie between the plains of the Ganges and the plateau of Thibet. Some of these were wholly unexplored, till recent transactions led the British armies to them as the scene of warlike operations.

Sutledge and Jumna.

This is particularly the case with the tract situated between the rivers Sutledge and Jumna, which the last war with the Ghoorkas has brought into the view of Europe, and which was the scene of the tour lately published by Mr. Fraser [o]. That territory is divided into about thirty political communities, four of which, being considerably larger than the others, are called principalities. Such was its condition before it was subdued by the Ghoorkas, and to this it has been nearly restored since the expulsion of that foreign power by the British arms. Though the people are almost all aboriginal, the rulers have been always strangers, who seem to have come among them on some of their pilgrimages to the sacred places, and finding them barbarous and ignorant in the extreme, easily subdued them. The chiefs were almost always in a state of

[n] W. Hamilton's Description of Hindostan, vol. I. p. 167.

[o] See Journal of a Tour through part of the snowy range of the Himālah mountains, and to the sources of the rivers Jumna and Ganges, by James Baillie Fraser, Esq. 4to. 1820.

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mutual war, till they were invaded by the Ghoorkas in 1803. In 1814 it was wholly occupied by this people, who had not only committed great excesses in the prosecution of the war, but kept up a rule of the most oppressive description. They maintained here a force of 7000 men, 5000 of whom were regular troops, armed with muskets like the sepoys. Many of the old forts which they could not conveniently occupy were destroyed. The revenue extracted from it by Ummer Singh, the commander, never exceeded 282,000 rupees, (L.28,200.) In 1815 Sir David Auchterlony took the country after a hard contest, in which the fortresses of Jytok and Almora sustained the attacks of the Europeans with a bravery and perseverance seldom before displayed by the military powers of India. This conquest cost the victors no trifling expenditure of blood and treasure. The country was, with a few exceptions, put in possession of the former expelled chiefs. Very few of them pay tribute to the protecting power. They have engaged to submit their disputes to British arbitration, and to furnish a specific number of hill carriers in case of military operations in their country, the only mode of conveying baggage over these rugged regions being by human labour. The moral character of the indigenous mountaineers is represented in very unfavourable colours, as destitute of gratitude or honesty; they perpetually rob one another, and the poorest individual who has a rag on his back is made an object of plunder in passing from one village to another. The long distracted state of the country and its extremely minute division into petty independent jurisdictions, generated or maintained this state of peculiar degradation. Their subjugation to harsh masters, and the exactions to which they have been subjected, have rendered them indolent in the extreme. Their physical constitution is far from being robust. The four largest principalities are Cahlore, (situated on both sides of the Sutledge,) Hindoor, Sirmore, and Bussaher. The legitimate Rajah of Sirmore, Kurrum Perkaush, whose birth would have induced the victors to re-establish

Present political state.

him, was so bad a character that he was set aside, and his son, a minor, seated on the guddy, (or throne,) under the guardianship of his mother. Kurrum Perkaush had, during his possession of the sovereignty before the Ghoorka conquest, murdered every person of worth in his dominions, so that the existence of such characters was only a matter of tradition: yet in 1816, when this person had every appearance of drawing near his end, his wife declared her resolution to terminate her life at the same time. Nahan, the capital of Sirmore, is a large open town, populous and handsome, situated on a level spot on the top of a lofty mountain. It stands about 2000 feet above the level of the plain. From the top of this and the neighbouring mountains, a magnificent view is obtained of the plains of Sirhind to the south, the south-west, and south-east, but to the northward, the view is terminated by the snowy mountains. —Bussaher occupies the northern extremity of the territories between the Sutledge and Jumna. This state pays a tribute of 15,000 rupees, (L.1500) per annum. Rampoor, its capital, is a great mart for the goods of Thibet, those of the hills and of the plains.—Poondur is a remote and barbarous community among the hills, the particular circumstances of which are imperfectly known. It has never been subjected to the full control of any foreign power, such as that of the Ghoorkas. The people demand black mail of several of their neighbours, and delight in the life of liberty and plunder which their situation enables them to lead [p].

Gurwal and Kumaoon.

To the east of the river Jumna lies the province of Gurwal. The southern part of this country is an assemblage of hills of the most diversified and irregular kind, short and narrow ridges in all varieties of angles and mutual attitudes, and separated by confined valleys. The people of Gurwal and of Kumaoon are called Khasiyas; and their language also goes under that name, from the word Khas, the name given to the aborigines, who are reckoned an impure race; for this reason the present inhabitants disclaim that appellation, and pretend that their progenitors emigrated from the south. Ku-

[p] Fraser's Journal.

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maoon lies east and south from Gurwal, being separated from it by a small river; but the inhabitants of the two territories are widely different from each other. Those of Gurwal are comparatively strong and active, and earn their subsistence in a great measure by labouring as carriers to the pilgrims who visit the holy places. The Gurwalians fix their burdens on their backs with slings, but the Kumaoonees carry them on the head, their country being somewhat less precipitous, so as not to demand so imperiously the free use of their hands in climbing. The people of Gurwal, however, have always crouched beneath any political yoke however galling, without making the least effort to assert their independence, though their country is strong and well adapted for defence. Here the Bhagirath and Alcananda streams unite to form the Ganges. The country fell under British influence in 1814. The Rajah of Serinagur was re-established; but, as his former capital is situated in a part of the territory which the British retained in their own hands, he subsequently fixed his residence at Earahât [q]. The river Alcananda is the Rajah's eastern boundary, and to the east of it lies the mountainous province of Kumaoon.

Town of Serinagur.

Serinagur, the late capital of Gurwal, occupies a central situation in a valley about three miles long, surrounded by barren mountains, on the east side of the river Alcananda. It is of an elliptical form, and about three-fourths of a mile long. The houses are roughly built of stone and earth, generally two stories high, and roofed with slate. The house of the old Rajahs is of granite, and four stories high. The river Alcananda, on which the town stands, has made great encroachments on it; an earthquake in 1803 has also injured it greatly, and in 1815 the British found it in a most ruinous condition. The inhabitants are chiefly emigrants from the low countries, and the leading persons are the agents of the banking houses at Nujibabad and in the Doab, who are engaged in the traffic of specie. The British retain possession of

[q] Dr. F. Buchanan. Mr. W. Hamilton, vol. II. p. 633, &c.

the valley of Deyrah Doon, situated between the Jumna and Ganges, and of some importance in a military point of view. Kalunga is an important fortress in Gurwal, which, in 1814, stood two separate attempts to carry it by storm, but was afterwards abandoned by the garrison during the preparations made for a third assault. A little to the north-east of this fortress are many caves, inhabited by a race of people nearly in a state of nature, who live on rice of a remarkably large grain. The caves extend for some distance into the rock, and are frequently a considerable height from the ground, and ascended by rope ladders. In this country are some of the holy junctions of the Gangetic streams called Prayagas, and the two sources called Gangootree and Kedarnath. Bhadrinath is a town consisting of twenty or thirty huts, with a temple, and a warm spring used as a bath. The whole territory is filled with sacred places, which the Hindoos make a merit of visiting, and pay stated sums in the form of offerings, at numerous places, in the course of their religious tour.

Kumaoon.

Between the rivers Alcananda and Cali, lies the Hindoo principality of Kumaoon. Here the surface is less prerupt than in Gurwal, the plains are spacious, and the hills of easy ascent. The population is denser, and the cultivation carried higher up the hills. The towns and villages look well at a distance, but, on nearer inspection, are found dirty. The houses are two storeys high, the ground floor being occupied by the cattle. The people dress in cotton stuffs, while the Gurwalians dress in wool. Their dispositions are mild. Polygamy is much practised among them. The men take the charge of the household affairs, while the women undertake all the drudgeries of agriculture. They are very much under the influence of the Brahmins, who, previously to the subjugation of the country by the Ghoorkas, raised and deposed the Rajah at pleasure.

Fortress of Almora.

Almora is the capital of Kumaoon, and was the scene of important and well contested military actions in 1815. There is a subdivision of the Kumaoon district called Painkhandi, very precipitous in its surface, contain-

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ing the snowy peak of Rhamnee, 22,700 feet above the ocean. The hills abound in timber. Some of the cedars are of enormous size. Some specimens of them have measured 27 feet in circumference at the height of four feet from the ground, and 180 feet in height. Hemp grows with uncommon luxuriance, being ten or twelve feet high, with wide spreading branches. There is a plant, resembling butcher's broom, from which the inhabitants make a paper which is in request among the native bankers of India for bills of exchange, as being only moderately bibulous, and stronger than other paper. Birch bark is used for writing on, and quantities of it are sent to Lucknow, where it is used to line the snakes, or winding tubes, of the hookahs. Several of the inhabitants are Bhootees. There are ten villages among the snowy mountains inhabited exclusively by that race. They indeed occupy in general the alpine heights nearest to the snowy Himālahs, both on the north and south side. They are entirely devoted to religious observances and commerce. On some occasions they are concerned in military operations, but rather unwillingly. They are darker in complexion than the other mountaineers. They adhere to the lama religion, which they mix with several Hindoo superstitions. Some of these tracts are only inhabited in the summer months: such as the village Malari on the Niti road. In Gurwal and Kumaoon the sale of children was a daily practice, and a subject of taxation under the Ghoorka government, but has been abolished by British authority [r].

Paper plant.

Kingdom of Nepâl.

To the east of these countries lies the kingdom of Nepâl, one of the largest and most compact sovereignties of modern Indostan, comprehending nearly two-thirds of the northern hills of India. The name of Nepâl properly belongs only to one magnificent valley, the rest of the kingdom consisting of other conquests of the Ghoorkas, who are its masters. This kingdom is in the form of a parallelogram, all the sides of which, except the northern, are bounded by the British possessions. It in general

[r] W. Hamilton's Description of Hindostan, vol. II. p. 648.

extends about twenty miles into the plains of Indostan. To the north of this flat belt, there is a range of low hills, between which and the high mountains there are fine valleys of considerable length; these are well cultivated, and called *doon*, a term synonymous to "strath" or "glen." Along the bottoms of the hills there is a rich low tract, which is left without cultivation, on account of its extreme unhealthiness[s]; though some parts which have been well cleared appear to be tolerably healthy.—A great part of the country among the hills is very productive in grain and various fruits, such as pine apples, peaches, grapes, and oranges. Ginger and cardamoms form part of the valuable produce of these tracts. Much of this mountainous region consists of granite: it contains much iron, lead, copper, some zinc, and a little gold in some of the rivers: it also contains mines of sulphur. The breadth of the hilly region, between the plains and the alpine region, is about thirty or forty miles at Catmandoo, the capital, but it is greater in the western parts. The alpine region itself is of equal extent. The snowy ridge winds considerably, but has few interruptions, and is in most places quite impassable.

Newars. Original inhabitants.

The numerous valleys interspersed among these mountains are inhabited by various tribes, differing in language and customs. Those who have any pretensions to be aboriginal have the Mongolian character and aspect. The most fertile part of Nepâl Proper was formerly occupied (and still in a great measure is) by the Newars, a race addicted to agriculture and commerce, and far more advanced in the arts than any of the other mountain tribes. They profess the doctrines of Buddha; but instead of acknowledging the Lama, they have a priesthood of their own. They have also adopted the Hindoo practice of division into castes. In the more rugged parts, there is a tribe called Murmi, a robust race, who live by agriculture and the carrying of burdens.

[s] Col. Kirkpatrick's Account of the Kingdom of Nepâl, p. 20.

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They are hated by the Ghoorkas, for eating the flesh of the cow; and, not being permitted to kill these sacred animals, they eat those that die a natural death. The Hindoo inhabitants of Nepâl have the character of being both abject and arrogant, debauched, jealous, and revengeful. The Ghoorka military are more orderly than that which was previously maintained by the native Rajahs, but inferior to the British sepoys. They are armed with matchlocks, for which they do not use cartridges. The war standard exhibits, on a yellow ground, the portrait of Huniman, a gigantic monkey and Hindoo demigod.

Great valley of Nepâl.

The most select portions of the Ghoorka territories consist of two delightful valleys, called Great and Little Nepâl. The large valley is nearly circular, watered by numerous rills, running from the mountains, and meeting in the centre, in the Bogmutty. Here is Catmandoo, the capital, which stands 4784 feet above the plains of Bengal. Hence, though in lat. 27° 50′, it enjoys a climate similar to that of the south of Europe; the temperature of the springs is 64°. The periodical rains extend to this spot. The hoe is the great instrument of cultivation, but extremely awkward from its shortness, obliging the workman either to stoop greatly, or to sit on his heels, the last of which postures he generally prefers. They have numerous water-mills for grinding corn, an improvement not known in southern Indostan. There are considerable manufactories of copper, of brass, and a kind of bell metal. They make bells, but not equal to those made in Thibet. They make several bell metal vessels, and sell them along with those of brass and copper in Thibet. The great mass of the inhabitants dwell in the valleys. Both the hills, and the low country called Terriani, are very thinly peopled. The Newars are much more numerous than the Parbutties, or mountaineers. To them also the cultivation of the soil is generally confined. They are despised by the Parbutties as an unwarlike race, and are treated with oppressive rigour and extortion by their rulers. They have in some degree the Mongolian features, but with a much wilder expression. Most of the ser-

Catmandoo.

vants are slaves. Some Brahmins are slaves to Rajepoots, and act as cooks, which is considered as a situation of great dignity. It is reckoned disgraceful in any one to sell his children to an infidel, or a person of impure caste, although this is sometimes done in urgent cases; and the individual who does it does not on that account lose caste. He would however incur this dreaded calamity, if he should at any future time receive such a child again into his house. The female slaves of the Maha Ranny, or Queen, are allowed some peculiar privileges, and have considerable influence at court. In the day time, they attend their royal mistress; and when she goes out, some of them follow her as a body guard, dressed and riding on horseback like men, and armed with swords. Catmandoo is estimated to contain a population of 20,000. There are some other fine cities in the same valley; as Lalita Patan, which contains 24,000 inhabitants, and was formerly the capital of an independent state. Bhatgony is another, which was also a capital before the Ghoorka invasion. In the hills on the south side of this valley are the sacred springs of the Seher at the village of Sulti Khul. They contain multitudes of small fish, which are never touched, the inhabitants believing that any attempt to steal them will be followed by instant death[t].

Valley of Noakote.

The other valley is called Noakote, about six miles long, and one and a quarter in breadth; possessing an extremely fertile soil, and capable of bearing all the productions of Bahar, though hemmed in by the snowy mountains on the north. Though so near the hills, it appears not to be quite so elevated as that of Catmandoo. The heats are so great after April that the country is not habitable, on account of the prevalence of the fever called the Owl[u]. North from Catmandoo, at a distance of thirty-seven miles taken in a straight line, though requiring eight days to accomplish the journey, is Nielkantha, a town of pilgrimage, which is visited about the end of July and the beginning of

[t] Kirkpatrick's Nepâl, p. 75.

[u] Ibid. p. 117.

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August, though the road is scarcely passable, on account of the depth of the snow; avalanches and glaciers being frequent. During this short period a fair is held here, and many shops are opened; but when the cold season sets in, it is abandoned by all its inhabitants, who remove to a milder climate. The name signifies "a blue throat," and is an epithet of Siva, originating from an exploit said in the Hindoo mythology to have been performed by that deity.

The twenty-four Rajahs.

Immediately west from Nepâl Proper, is a country of considerable extent, called "the territory of the twenty-four Rajahs," because it formerly consisted of that number of petty states under Rajahs who acknowledged the superiority of the Jemlah Rajah. One of these is Ghoorka, the original seat of the power which has made such extensive conquests in those regions. Jemla was once bounded by Gurwal, and had the ascendency over numerous states. It contains a fine valley, indented with deep ravines twenty miles long, and ten wide, resembling that of Nepâl, but more checquered with hills. It is well cultivated, and contains valuable mines of rock salt. The Bhootees, who are Lamaists, form the majority of the population; but all the accounts which we have of it have reached us through the medium of natives, as it has not yet been visited by Europeans.

Mucwanpoor.

Mucwanpoor is an important district subject to the Rajah of Nepâl. It was formerly more extensive than it now is. It lies chiefly to the south of the Nepâl valley, and the San Cosi river. One half of it is in the level country called the Terriani, a belt about twenty miles wide. This contains some hilly and poor land, but the greater part of it is rich, though uncultivated, and on this account abounding in elephants and rhinoceroses. The breed of elephants is of a very inferior kind. The native Rajahs formerly encouraged the exuberance of the jungle for their own defence, cultivating a few rich spots which were concealed in the bosom of the forests. Under the Ghoorka dynasty, it has been more extensively clear-

ed. It produces excellent tobacco, and some red cotton. To the north of the Terriani, Mucwanpoor consists of a gradation of small hills abounding with pines. The peasantry all over this district are dirty and poor. At the conclusion of the last war of the British with the Nepâlese government, the former proposed to restore an old Rajah to the possession of a great part of this territory: but the matter probably remains still unsettled, being put off by the pertinacity of the Nepâlese. To the east of Nepâl Proper, the mountains are chiefly occupied by two tribes called Kirauts and Limboos intermingled, both subject to the Ghoorkas. They are not sincere followers of the Brahmins, but are compelled by their present rulers to abstain from the flesh of the cow, for which they have a strong predilection. With Thibet there are two roads of communication from Nepâl.—Morung lies on the east of Mucwanpoor, and is similar to it in physical character. It continues subject to the Ghoorkas, with the exception of a section extending thirty-five miles to the west of the Teesta. BOOK XLVII. Morung.

To the east of Morung lies the principality of Sikkim, about sixty miles long, and forty broad. The greater part of it is included between the two arms of the river Teesta. The inhabitants are of the Lapcha tribe. They mostly profess Lamaism, eat beef, pork, and other animal food held by the Hindoos in detestation, drink ardent spirits to excess, and do not marry their females till they arrive at maturity. They are not so enervated by excess in religious devotion as the Bhootees; hence, though the latter had the ascendency in the government previously to the Ghoorka invasion, the armies consist chiefly of the more vigorous Lapchas. In 1788, the Ghoorkas, in a desperate contest near to the capital Sikkim, defeated the Rajah, and soon after obtained possession of the principality; though the submission of the people and their leaders was only partial, and accompanied with much annoyance to their masters, who afterwards gave them a chief of their own tribe. In the rup- Sikkim.

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ture between the Ghoorkas and the British in 1814, the Rajah declared in favour of the latter, and at the pacification was reinstated in a considerable portion of his mountain territory, together with a tract of low land ceded by the Ghoorkas, essential to the support of his people. This is rich, but not all under cultivation. The chief produce is rice and madder. In consequence of their coincidence in religious faith, this state keeps up more intercourse with Thibet than any other on the south side of the snowy mountains, and it is through this medium that all communication is conducted between India and the Chinese authorities on the north side of the Himālah mountains. The establishment of a state independent of the Ghoorka sway, and under friendly relations with the British government, has arrested the progress of Ghoorkan ambition to the eastward, where Bootan would have fallen an easy prey, and the approximation of this power to the Birman empire might have generated scenes of the most extensive warlike confusion. The fort of Naggree, in Sikkim, is a place of uncommon strength, which the Ghoorkas gave up with much reluctance, and which the British have strengthened for the Rajah with some powerful pieces of ordnance.

Bootan.

Contiguous to Sikkim on the east, is Bootan, the country of the Deb Rajah, which we have already noticed in our account of Thibet, estimated at an extent of 250 miles in length, and ninety in average breadth. It is entirely mountainous in its northern part, the reverse of Thibet, which is a level table land. At the base of the hills, near the frontier of Bengal, there is a valley choked up with jungle, and unhealthy. The face of the country in general is greatly diversified, and there are places of very opposite climates in sight of each other. There is a good deal of agricultural industry, and irrigation is much attended to; the labours of the field are devolved on the females. Wild animals are not numerous in Bootan; but monkeys of a large size and a handsome form abound, and are held sacred by the Bhootees, as well as by the Hindoos. A ca-

ravan dispatched by the Deb Rajah annually visits the Rungpoor district, bringing with it the coarse woollen manufacture of the country, Thibet cowtails, walnuts, ivory, musk, gold dust, silver in ingots, Chinese silks, tea, paper, and knives, besides horses; it takes back in return, English woollens, indigo, dried fish, quicksilver, cloves, nutmegs, incense, sandal wood, copper, tin, gunpowder, hides, cotton cloth, and pigs. The value of the whole scarcely exceeds 30,000 rupees; and the indigo forms one half of it. This timid government will not permit any caravan from Bengal to enter Bootan. The military weapons of the Bootaners are bows and arrows, short straight swords, faulchions resembling pruning hooks, and a few bad matchlocks. The people are of large stature, many of them six feet high; more ruddy and robust than the Bengalese, but very subject to glandular swellings in the throat. Their eyes and features are in a great measure Mongolian. Their skins are smooth; and they have no beard till well advanced in years. Tea is much used among them. Their manner of preparing it is to mix together flour, salt butter, bohea tea, with some other astringent vegetable, and water; boil them together, and beat them up. When they have finished the cup, they lick it clean with the tongue. Their houses have only one story, but the palace of the Deb Rajah has several, which are ascended by lofty stairs. The country being mountainous, abounds in bridges hung on iron chains. When the Deb Rajah takes a dose of physic, his physician is obliged to swallow an equal dose. The ministers of religion are quite distinct in their habits from the people, and the latter take no part in matters of spiritual concern. The Deb Rajah, their governor, is considered as the secular vicegerent of their spiritual prince called Dharma Rajah, a supposed incarnation of the deity, who sometimes interposes his opinion with an air of authority. The people of the low countries belong to subdued tribes, and the true Bootaners live in the mountains; sometimes descending to enforce obedience from the people of the plains,

The Deb Rajah and Dharma Raja.

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to inflict chastisement, or to invade the neighbouring states. On such occasions it is said that their attacks exhibit a horrid combination of cowardice, perfidy, and diabolical cruelty. It was in 1772 that this country first fell under the observation of the British, in consequence of a sudden invasion made by the Deb Rajah on the territory of Cooch Bahar. Two battalions of native infantry were employed to drive them back, and pursue them into their own country, when the fortress of Dellamcotta was taken by storm. On this occasion the Deb Rajah obtained a peace through the mediation of the Teshoo Lama. The town of Tassisudon, the capital of Bootan, stands in the middle of a cultivated valley, which is about three miles in length, and one in breadth. The castle or palace is of a quadrangular form. Near it is a long line of sheds, where workmen are employed in forging brazen gods, and other ornaments for the houses[x].

Kingdom of Assam.

On the south of Bootan, and extending a great way to the east, is the kingdom of Assam. It adjoins the province of Bengal, at the north-east corner, about the 91st degree of east longitude. It is thought probable that it comes in contact with the kingdom of Ava on the east, about the 96th degree of longitude, and is at that part 180 miles from Yunan in China. It is the basin or valley through which a large portion of the river Brahmapootra flows. The average breadth of the valley is about seventy miles, but the present territory of the Rajah of Assam nowhere reaches the hills,—these belonging to the Deb Rajah of Bootan. The western province is named Camroop, extending nearly as far east as the celebrated temple of middle Kamakhya. The long island formed by the division and re-union of the river, contains many low woody hills, and a great extent of fine low land, possessed of great natural fertility. The middle province, or Assam Proper, is more extensive than the western. No European has penetrated much further than Gohati, the

[x] See Capt. Turner's Account of Thibet, and Dr. F. Buchanan.

capital, situated at its western extremity. Its length is not known. It comprehends the northern half of the western island formed by the Brahmapootra, and the whole of the very large island named Majuli. It is more fertile, and less hilly than Camroop. The third province is a small and insignificant tract, of which very little is known. For a great way to the east, no part of this state lies on the south side of the river. On the north Assam is bounded by the mountains of Bootan, Auka, Duffala, and Miree, and on the south by the Garrow mountains, which become higher as they extend east, and change the name of Garrow to that of Naga. The animal and vegetable productions are similar to those of Bengal. Three-fourths of the produce consist of rice. The trade of this kingdom has diminished of late years, and the number of its inhabitants has been reduced by the violence of intestine broils. It is a rule of state in Assam that no person of the royal blood can succeed to the throne if he has any blemish or scar on his body; and it is sometimes the practice to mark artificially those who are not to succeed to the crown, in order to prevent civil wars about the succession. The criminal code is cruel in the extreme; but among the rich its punishments are easily averted by bribery. All the members of the family of any rebel, both male and female, are capitally punished. Rafts covered with human heads are sometimes found floating down the Brahmapootra, supposed to be supplied from this source. The population is supposed to be under half a million: about three-fourths of the country are uncultivated jungle. It contains no shops nor markets, and their towns are merely groups of the most miserable hovels. The national character has deteriorated since the introduction of the Brahminical religion. They have become more pusillanimous towards foreigners, and more disunited among themselves[y].

Adjoining states. Bidgenee.

In the neighbourhood of Assam, to the west and the north, there are a few states or principalities which main-

[y] See Mr. Wade's work. Dr. F. Buchanan.

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tain more or less show of independence. Such is Bidgenee, the Rajah of which has part of his possessions within the limits of the Bengal province, subject to the English, and another part within the territory of Bootan, while the spot on which his capital is situated is a sort of neutral ground, deriving a degree of independence from its ambiguous position. Here the prince is suspected of harbouring bad characters, and sharing in their plunder. He pays a tribute of 2000 rupees to the English [z].

The Garrows.

The tribe called the Garrows occupy a portion of the territory included in the great bending of the Brahmapootra, where, from running west, it turns to the south. They formerly occupied this territory to the margins of the river, but are now confined to an inland hilly district. They are a ferocious and irregular set of people, and a military establishment is required in their neighbourhood, to hold them in check during the fairs. Mingled with them are some hostile tribes, who have subdued portions of their country, particularly on the banks of the river. They are a more robust race than the Bengalese, both men and women are active in their habits, and would be industrious if they were secured in a fair recompense for their produce. But their transactions with their neighbours are said not to be subjected to good regulations on the part of the latter. They eat all sorts of animal food, including dogs, cats, frogs, and snakes. Milk they hold in abhorrence, as a kind of excrementitious matter. They are partial to puppies, which they cook in the most cruel manner that can be conceived. They first make the animal eat as much rice as its stomach will receive, then tie his four legs together, and throw him on the fire. They take out the animal when sufficiently broiled, rip open the body, and divide the rice in equal shares among the party assembled. This process has been repeatedly witnessed by the Bengalese traders. They have some other characteristic barbarous customs. When a quarrel arises between two Gar-

Their character and customs.

[z] Dr. F. Buchanan.

rows, the weaker party escapes to a distant hill: both parties plant a tree bearing an acid fruit called chatakor, and swear solemnly to embrace the earliest opportunity of eating their adversary's head with the juice of its fruit. If no opportunity occurs for many years, the feud is handed down with undiminished virulence to posterity. The party which eventually succeeds in cutting off the head of his adversary, boils it with the fruit of the tree, eats part of the soup, and distributes the remainder among his friends: the tree is now cut down, and the feud is ended; the party of the deceased, instead of indulging the spirit of vengeance, acquiesces in the award of the good fortune of the other. They set a high value on the heads of Bengalese people, especially when they belong to persons of rank. When they separate one from the body, they bring it reeking among their friends, fill the skull with victuals, eat out of it, and accompany the feast with dancing; then bury it for a length of time sufficient to make the flesh separate easily from the bones, after which they dance round it as before, and hang it up as a trophy in the house of the murderer. Such a skull has its value in exchange like any other piece of property. It forms, in fact, a circulating medium; and the value is in proportion to the rank of the individual. The head of a Hindoo factor who had purchased the zemindary of Caloomaloopara was valued at 1000 rupees; that of a common peasant costs ten or twelve. That none of their own people's heads may be passed off in this manner, they make a point of burning the bodies of their dead to powder. Domestic feuds are numerous; but they have courts held by their chiefs for settling disputes. These courts do not inflict any punishment, unless a man is detected in uttering a falsehood before them, which incurs the penalty of instant death. Dishonesty and stealing are not frequent, but murders are daily occurrences. Those who are not converted to the Brahminical religion believe in the transmigration of souls. Their supreme god has a wife, though no children. They use no images or temples. They do not write

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their own language; a few among them can read and write Bengalese. This description applies chiefly to the northern Garrows. The southern are partially converted to the Brahminical religion. Their colour is sometimes a light, sometimes a deep brown. They have a surly look, a flat nose, small eyes, a wrinkled forehead, overhanging eyebrows, a large mouth, thick lips, and a round face. The women are singularly ugly, short and squat, but strong-bodied, and work at all occupations. Intoxication is very common, and is the cause of many crimes [a].

Cachar.

Cachar, on the south of Assam, is a large territory, which the Birmans have invaded with various success, sometimes being obliged to retire on account of the unhealthiness of the country, and sometimes succeeding in exacting tributary engagements. Between Cachar and

Munipoor.

Arracan lies Cassay, or Munipoor, bounded on the west by the Bengal districts of Tiperah and Silhet, and on the east separated from the Birman territories by the river Keenduem. The natives have the soft countenances of the Hindoos, very different from the Birman physiognomy. Several of them who have been taken prisoners, are now settled in the Birman capital, Ummerapoor, where they are distinguished by their superior skill in various branches of handicraft work. They are excellent horsemen, and form the only cavalry in the Birman empire. Their music is pleasant, and conformable to the European taste. They profess the Brahminical religion. Their capital is Munipoor, in N. latitude 24° 20′, and E. longitude 94° 30′. The tract in which it is situated forms the nearest communication between the north-east corner of Bengal and the north-west quarter of the Birman empire, but the whole route has not been traversed by any European. A communication is kept up between Munipoor and Assam. It was taken by the Birmans in 1774, and is still tributary to that power [b].

[a] Sipon. Elliot. Dr. F. Buchanan.

[b] Wade. Syme's Account of an Embassy to the King of Ava.

BOOK XLVIII.

INDOSTAN CONTINUED.

The Deccan, or Southern Indostan.

THE countries topographically described in the preceding book are sometimes called Indostan Proper. To the south of these lies a beautiful triangular region, stretching from a broad base of fifteen degrees of longitude, through a range of the same number of degrees of latitude, that is, from 23° N. to 8° but gradually becoming narrower as it proceeds southward, till it terminates in a point at Cape Comorin. This portion of India has been called the Peninsula; and, to distinguish it from a country which is to follow it in our descriptions, it has been denominated "the Peninsula on this side of the Ganges." A more appropriate name for it is the Deccan, which, according to some, means *Dakkan*, or "the south," according to others *Dakina*, or "the country on the right," as it is on the right of those travellers or conquerors who enter by the way of Persia. The term Deccan has not always been equally extensive in its application. In its most ancient acceptation it included the whole peninsula, for it all belongs to the *Poonyaboomi*, or holy land of the Brahmins. It is full of ancient places of pilgrimage, and has, from the earliest period of history, been inhabited by Hindoos. At the epoch of the composition of the Puranas, it was, like the rest of Indostan, divided into a multitude of small principalities.

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The five original nations which inhabit this country go under the common appellation of Draviras. The *Goorjanas*, or Goojers, seem to have been incorporated with the other four at some period comparatively recent, by circumstances buried in the darkness of antiquity. Other two, the *Mahrattas* and *Telingas* have always been numerous and powerful nations, occupying the western and eastern portions of the northern half of the peninsula. On the south, the *Carnatas* or *Canaras* come in contact with them, occupying the whole breadth of the peninsula. The *Tamulas*, or *Draviras* properly so called, dwell in the southern extremity. This division of races, marked by diversity of language and of writing, and consecrated by a religion which prohibits any mixture of caste, has withstood the shock of conquests, the caprices of tyrants, and even the intolerance of Mahometan bigotry. Within the territorial limits of these different races, a certain number of others are found, who have been induced to emigrate to this country by motives of interest, or who have sought in it an asylum from the cruelty of conquerors: but, as they have remained completely insulated, their manners, customs, languages, religious and nuptial ceremonies, bear testimony to their origin, and to the permanent character of all their institutions.

Divisions.

Conquests and political revolutions have occasioned changes in the boundaries and relative importance of the kingdoms which have been formed in this peninsula. The kingdom which in the fifth century had Vijanagara, or Bisnagor, for its capital, is more particularly denominated "the kingdom of the Deccan" in the writings of the Portuguese, Arabs, and Turks. It comprehended the more modern provinces of Khandesh, Dowletabad, Bejapoor, Golconda, Berar, and Gundwana. It was also called the kingdom of Narsinga, from the title assumed by its sovereigns. The Mahometan emperors, or Great Moguls, when they conquered a great part of this kingdom, of which Dowletabad was the most conspicuous portion, called it the government or vice-royalty of the Deccan.

Kingdom of the Deccan.

This province underwent various changes, sometimes by enlargement and sometimes by curtailment, according to the changing fortune of arms, till at last the viceroy or Nizam of the Deccan, taking advantage of the weakness of his masters to make himself independent, erected a separate state, now subject to England, of which the centre is Hyderabad, and to which, as a state, the name of the Deccan is sometimes particularly applied.

Mogul province of the Deccan.

State of the Nizam.

In consequence of these changes, the names of provinces now employed in the geography of the Deccan are sometimes those imposed on them as Mogul governments, sometimes those of indigenous or mussulman kingdoms, and sometimes those which are derived from the ancient tribes. It must be confessed that these fluctuations give the geographer a troublesome task.—Old political divisions are always less important than those now existing, and, from the recency of the last change, existing divisions in the present instance are not defined in a satisfactory manner. But we must trace their leading features.—Till very lately we should have been inclined to arrange them under three or four different heads, founded on their political condition, viz. the Mahratta states, the Mahometan possessions, including those of the Nizam and of the Nabob of the Carnatic, the English provinces, and the Hindoo principalities of the south. But recent revolutions have so completely reduced the Mahrattas, and the countries immediately subjected to England are now so thoroughly intermixed with those of the former, as to break up all compactness of territory; the others, likewise, are become so completely subservient, or at least so effectually prevented from numbering the possibility of open defiance among their political prerogatives, that it will be most advisable to follow a simple topographical order, noticing, as we proceed, the influence of recent events in modifying the present state of the different localities.—In prosecution of this plan, we shall first take a view of the Deccan strictly so called, that is, the extensive territory which lies between the river Nerbuddah, with its parallel of latitude, extended to the eastern boundary,

Late and present divisions.

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and the Krishna, and then of the remaining part or triangular termination of the land, lying between the parallel of the Krishna and Cape Comorin.

THE DECCAN PROPER.

The Deccan Proper does not enjoy the same advantages for inland navigation as the more northerly provinces already described. The rivers, when swollen by periodical rains, are too impetuous to admit of it, and when not so swollen they are too shallow, except near the sea, where their course is obstructed by sand banks. The roads have at the same time always been impracticable for wheel carriages. Hence, this region is marked by a peculiarity in the mode of conducting an interchange of commodities. These have been transported on bullocks, the property of a class of people named Bunjarries, emigrants from Rajepootana, and consisting chiefly of four tribes, the Rhatores, Burteah, Chowhan, and Powar. In 1813, these were supposed to possess 182,000 head of cattle. Besides these, a race, called Mooltanies, professing the Mussulman religion, who say that they fled from Mooltan when invaded by Nadir Shah in 1739, have a share in the same occupation of carriers, and muster about 5000 or 6000 head of cattle [a].

Prevailing mode of inland carriage.

We shall take our departure from the central parts in the north; proceed next along the eastern coast, and then take the western provinces in the same order, that is, from north to south.

Province of Gundwana.

We begin with the extensive province of Gundwana, so called from the tribe of the Gonds who inhabit the western parts of it, or Gundwana Proper. The eastern parts consist of a number of petty raja-ships, which are almost independent, and not mutually connected. They are of no political importance, except that they form a strong westerly frontier to Bengal and Orissa, the country being wild, and impenetrable to an army. Gundwana is a large quadrangular territory, with its sides obliquely placed in reference to the points of the compass. On its north-west

[a] Mr. W. Hamilton's Description, vol. II. p. 4.

side, it is bounded by Malwah and Allahabad; on the north-east by Bahar and Bengal; on the south-east by Orissa and the Northern Circars, which lie between it and Bengal Bay; and on the south-west by Khandesh, Berar, Beeder, and Hyderabad. It contains the sources of the Nerbuddah and Sone: the Wurdee and Godavery form its south-west frontier line, and receive several tributary streams from it. The Karoon, Hatsoo, and Silair, are the largest rivers by which it is intersected, and none of them are navigable within its limits. It is on the whole mountainous, poor, ill watered, unhealthy, wild, and thinly peopled. A chain of mountains of no great elevation extends from the southern frontier of Bengal almost to the Godavery, separating the western or Nagpoor districts from the eastern. The inhabitants of these hills are called Kurns or Carnas. The native Gonds in the west are a miserable race, scarcely advanced one step in civilization, and the very lowest in the scale of Indian society. They are Brahminical Hindoos, the Brahmins having condescended to officiate as spiritual directors to some of their chiefs, but they retain many impure customs, and eat all sorts of animal food, with the exception of beef. One of their chiefs was conquered and taken prisoner to Delhi by one of Aurengzebe's officers, was converted to the Mahometan religion, had his conquered lands restored, and received the title of Boorahan Shah. His descendants were afterwards carried captive to Nagpoor by the Mahrattas. They are still Mahometans, but highly respected, and family alliances with them are ambitiously courted by the other Gond chiefs. All the Gonds have been rendered tributary to the Mahrattas, but the collection of the tribute could never be executed without the presence of an armed force.

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The Gond tribes.

The capital of Gundwana is Nagpoor, being the seat of the Bhoonsla Mahratta dynasty. In some maps it is erroneously represented as the capital of Berar, which is an adjoining province. Nagpoor is an extensive city, of modern date, but meanly built. The streets are narrow and filthy, and the houses roofed with tile. It is imperfectly fortified with a wall. The fort is a place of considerable strength

Nagpoor.

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The British residency lies to the west of the city, separated from it by a small ridge of high ground[b]. The city and suburbs are about seven miles in circumference, and the population is estimated at 100,000. This was once a powerful government, but, having so far departed from its old system of reserve and neutrality as to join Sindia in a confederation against the English, it was, in 1803, deprived of Cuttak, and thus cut off from its connection with the sea. Recently the Raja Appa Saheb having, under the veil of friendly relations, engaged in a series of deceitful plots, some of which were formed immediately after he had been reinstated in valuable possessions by the conquerors at whose mercy he was placed; that individual was, in 1818, placed in confinement, from which he escaped, and has, by the latest accounts, led the life of a predatory fugitive among the Gonds, while a legitimate heir of the family has been instated in the throne and territory; but the powers of the family are now greatly curtailed, the British having taken possession of all the northern parts situated on the Nerbuddah. Amerkoontook, in N. lat. 22° 55′ and E. long 82° 7′, is a wild and thinly inhabited region, but a celebrated scene of Hindoo pilgrimage, from containing the sources of the Sone and Nerbuddah rivers. It has not been explored by Europeans; but, being now within the limits of the British dominions, it is likely to be soon better known to geographers.—Mundela is a strong fortress on the Nerbuddah, delivered up to the British in 1818. The central district of Chotteesghur is better cultivated than the rest of this desolate province, and exports grain. Its capital, Ruttunpoor, consists of 1000 miserable and straggling huts, near to which is an idol of blue granite, nine feet high, rubbed over with red paint, and ornamented with flowers. Here are many pools and tanks; and the ruins in the neighbourhood indicate the former existence of a more advanced state of society. Ryepoor, another town in the same district, contains 3000 huts.

Amerkoontook.

Mundela.

Ruttunpoor.

[b] A view of the residency and the adjoining hills, is given in Prinsep's Narative, p. 144, and a plan of the vicinity of the city at p. 230.

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Province of Orissa.

On the east of Gundwana, on the Bengal Bay, is the province of Orissa, bounded by Bengal on the north, and the Northern Circars on the south, from which it is separated by the Chilka lake. In the interior the hills are rugged, uncultivated, overgrown by rank jungle, and unhealthy in the highest degree, so that armies have sustained enormous losses by sickness, in the mere act of crossing the mountainous ridge which extends from the Godavery to the Mahanuddy. This province, though provided with so strong a natural barrier, has always easily changed its masters, in consequence of the apathy of the people: and, as its unhealthiness has discouraged colonization, the Hindoo manners are maintained in greater purity here than in most other parts of India. It contains some monuments which seem to indicate that it was a flourishing country previously to the Mahometan invasion, and the conclusion is confirmed by the narratives of some early travellers. Nearly half of it is now under British jurisdiction, including all the low parts on the sea-coast. This part is plain and fertile, but not well cultivated or peopled. Its inhabitants are reckoned a hundred to each square mile. The hilly parts are possessed by native Zemindars, who are called Ghurjauts, and are tributary to the British government. They contain about thirty persons to the square mile. Rice and salt are the chief produce of the province. In the tributary part, the people are wretched and poor. Some live by burning charcoal, or smelting iron, others by felling timber. The country swarms with wild animals, among which are tigers and jackals. In the back lying parts of the province, the native Ooreas, a courageous and fierce race, retain their pristine barbarous manners, and commonly go armed with bows and arrows, or swords, which last are broad at the end and narrow in the middle, and worn naked. An irreconcilable hatred has always subsisted between this people and the Mahrattas. Those Ooreas, who are within the British jurisdiction, have adopted industrious habits, and are pu-

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sillanimous and cunning. In the northern maritime part of Orissa there is a considerable manufacture of coarse calicos, called *sanacs*, for turbans. The sea-port town of Belasore, on the Booree Bellaun river, though much fallen off, having been a great place for European factories at an early period of intercourse between India and Europe, is still noted for maritime transactions. It has at different times been the scene of warlike operations. In 1688, in a dispute with Aurengzebe, it was attacked by the English under Captain Heath, a battery of thirty guns taken, and the town plundered. In 1803, it was taken by the English from the Nagpoor Raja, and has ever since remained attached to the presidency of Bengal. The district of Cuttak to the south, lying between the Chilka lake and the river Solundee, is a flat, rich, alluvial country. The town of Cuttak is large and populous, and its situation below high water mark, so as to require embankments to preserve it from being inundated by the tide.

Belasore.

Temple and worship of Juggernaut.

In the district of Cuttak, in this province, is the celebrated Juggernaut, in lat. 19° 40′ N. and long. 85° 54′ E. Juggernaut is one of the names of the god Vishnu, under which he is worshipped in various temples in different parts of India. This temple, however, being esteemed supereminent in sanctity, receives the name of Juggernaut by way of eminence. It is a shapeless mass of decayed granite, but conspicuous from a distance, and, on so flat a coast, an excellent landmark for navigators. The town Pooree, by which it is surrounded, is dirty and ill built, inhabited by a sickly Hindoo population, consisting chiefly of priests and officers of the idol. The land for ten miles round the temple is reckoned so holy as to insure future bliss to every person who dies within its bounds. A ridiculous legend is attached to the origin of the image. Krishna, a divine incarnation, was accidentally killed by the arrow of Angada a hunter, and his bones were placed in the belly of an image made by Viswacarma, the architect of the gods. A succession of different images has

been fabricated, and the Brahmins engaged in removing the sacred bones are obliged to bandage their eyes for fear of being struck dead by the effulgence of the relics. The image at present exhibited is a carved block of wood, with a hideous visage painted black, the mouth wide and red, the eyes and head very large, without legs or hands, having only stumps of arms. At ceremonies, he is supplied with gold or silver arms. There are other two idols representing his brother and sister, which are of a white and yellow colour. The cars on which they are elevated are eighty feet high, resembling Hindoo pagodas, supported by strong frames placed on four or five rows of wheels, which deeply indent the ground as they turn. The upper parts of the cars are covered with English broad cloth, in party-coloured stripes, and decorated with streamers. During the festival of Ruth Jattra, the three images are brought forth with prodigious ceremony and noise, and moved along on these machines, amidst the shouts of an immense multitude, from the temple to the garden-house of the idol. The emulation excited to participate in the office of dragging these carriages is very high; the distance is about a mile and a half, but the motion is so slow that the journey occupies three or four days. Horrible scenes often occur on these occasions. Numerous individuals are squeezed or trod to death by the impetuous rushing of the multitude. Many miserable persons die of famine or fatigue round the place, and often at a distance of many miles before they reach the termination of their pilgrimage. Many offer themselves as voluntary sacrifices to gratify the idol. Here superstition assumes a peculiarly disgusting form. The temple, throne, and carriage of the deity are covered with indecent sculptures: the motions which are made, and the songs sung by the attending priests and ministers, are grossly obscene, and the highest merit and admiration are attached to the unnatural resolution of suicide, when formed and executed by any infatuated individual. When any such announces his intention of resigning life in this revolting manner, the crowd

Festival of Ruth or the car.

Fanaticism of the devotees.

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Self immolations.

makes way for the devoted individual, who throws himself on the ground before one of the chariot wheels, and is crushed to death. Sometimes, by laying themselves awkwardly down, they are not immediately killed, but languish for an hour or two in the agonies of death. Their bodies are not interred, but left to the dogs and the vultures. The air is deeply infected with the putrid effluvia emitted by the half consumed bodies, and to great distances round the place human bones and skulls lie strewed on the surface of the ground. At the times of the festivals, religious mendicants of all descriptions abound, who employ various strange devices to stimulate the charity of the multitude, such as standing on their heads, filling their eyes with mud, and their mouths with straw, or lying extended in a puddle of water. Numerous offerings of food are made to Juggernaut, and provisions which have been presented by others are purchased with much eagerness, on account of the sacred character which they have thus acquired. One singularity takes place here, that the distinction of caste is forgotten, and all descriptions of pilgrims feast with the Brahmins. Some old persons come on purpose to die at Juggernaut, and many measure the whole distance of a long journey by the length of their bodies.

Improvements connected with Juggernaut.

A great road from Calcutta to Juggernaut has been begun, raised at an average six feet above the level of the country. Between Cuttak and Juggernaut, the branches of the Maha are so numerous, that twenty-seven stone bridges are required. The chief entrance to the town and temple has been widened, to prevent the dismal casualties above alluded to, arising from the rushing of the fanatical crowd on the opening of the gate. This place was taken from the Mahrattas in 1803, and now presents the curious spectacle of a heathen temple of the most exceptionable kind, regulated, and its economy managed, under the British government. Scruples and remonstrances have been made by well meaning individuals on this point[c].

European scruples.

[c] See the details and reasonings in Buchanan's Christian Researches in Asia, p. 18—30, third edition.

The Europeans certainly give no countenance to the atrocious acts of self immolation which are perpetrated here under the influence of deluded opinions: but it would neither be wise nor fair to suppress by force the customary expressions of devotion, and the institutions which have for ages been subservient to it, and it would shew too much apathy to stand aloof, and leave the scene to its own course, to the full extent of all its attending barbarities. It is better to give full toleration, and at the same time exercise their power to mollify the hideous features of superstition by humane regulations suited to the present state of the general mind, and fitted to impress it gradually with the superiority of liberality and good sense to the fooleries of superstition and the useless tortures and violations of natural feeling to which it impels its votaries.

Revenue and expense of the temple.

In the year 1813, the receipts from the pilgrims (chiefly at the tolls) amounted to 87,159 rupees.

In the year 1813, the accounts of the temple stood as follows:—

Receipts.		Rupees.
From pilgrims, chiefly at the tolls,		87,159
From lands assigned to the temple,		20,643
Authorized collections at the temple,		5,997
		113,799
Expenditure.		
Collector's establishment, and contingencies,	17,257	
Value of broad cloth for the idol,	1,505	
Expenses of the temple itself,	56,612	
		75,374
Balance remaining to government,		38,425

The number of taxable pilgrims sometimes amounts to 70 or 80,000; but the number of persons attending exempted from taxation is always much greater. Many offerings are made to this temple all over Indostan, and transmitted either in the form of merchandize or bills of exchange. The economy of the temple is vested in the Raja of

BOOK XLVIII. Khoorda, by the British government. It is thought that 1,200,000 persons attend annually, of whom a very great number never return.

Province of the Northern Circars. The province called the Northern Circars, includes a great part of the territory which once belonged to Orissa, viz. from Goomsur to the river Godavery. It extends south as far as the river Gundegama. The southern part is subjected to extreme heat in summer, the thermometer sometimes standing at 108° at midnight for an entire week. Under this heat the wood warps to such a degree, that the nails fall out of doors and tables, and glass is liable to crack. The hill fever prevails in the upland parts. Much grain is produced in the Circars. Fruits and esculent roots do not succeed, and are thought to be injured by the sea air. The forests of Rajamundry on the Godavery yield abundance of large teak trees. Several kinds of woollen, cotton, and silk stuffs are manufactured here, but not in remarkable quantity; the thread is prepared by the females. Ships of 500 tons are built at the mouths of the Godavery. The native inhabitants are wholly Hindoos, with the exception of a few Mahometans in the towns. The hilly lands are in the hands of zemindars, some of whom were driven from the Carnatic and Orissa, by the Mahometans, in 1652. Other lands are divided into villages or townships, a sort of corporations provided with their proper establishment of officers and servants. Under this simple form of government, the inhabitants have lived from time immemorial. The boundaries of villages have been seldom altered, though often injured or desolated, and the same name and the same families have continued for ages. The inhabitants give themselves no trouble about the breaking up of kingdoms while their village and its internal economy remain unchanged. This state of society is prevalent in the whole of southern or peninsular India.

Division of the country into villages.

Political vicissitudes. In 1541 this country was subjugated by the Mahometans. In 1724 it was transferred from the house of Ti-

mour to the Nizam ul Mulk. In 1742 it was ceded to the French East India Company. It passed into the hands of the British by a grant of the Mogul and the Nizam. A considerable force (six native battalions) is required to preserve this country from the incursions of the mountaineers, whose haunts are not under the control of the British.—Ganjam is the most northern district in this province, containing Goomsur, a large zemindary, the possessor of which was found on accusation and subsequent inquiry by the British magistrate in 1815 to have been guilty of a long series of murders among the females of his seraglio, whom he destroyed by the most inhuman tortures, and threw their bodies into a well where humerous bones were found, demonstrating that the practice had been kept up for many years.—To the south of this is Vizagapatam. This district contains the zemindary of Bobilee, the possessor of which, Rangaroo, who ranked as the first poligar in the country, on being taken in his last strong fort by the French commander, at the instigation of a hostile neighbour, in 1757, ordered a thorough massacre of all the women and children of his garrison; and one of the soldiers, out of four who had taken an oath of vengeance when their chief fell, passed through the quarters of his enemy Vizeram Rauze, and stabbed him in thirty-two places.—The district of Rajamundry lies along both sides of the Godavery, but the greater part to the south. This is the only country on the west side of the Bengal Bay which furnishes teak wood. There is a considerable cultivation of sugar on the Delta of the river.—To the south of this is Masulipatam, famous for its chintzes. The population is industrious and numerous, so that, though the country is rich and well cultivated, it imports considerable quantities of rice and other provisions.—To the south of this is Guntoor, a rich and populous district, and the scene of some of the worst excesses of the Pindarees in 1815. Between the 10th and the 22d of March, a band of these miscreants, amounting to 5000, plundered 308 villages, murdered 166 persons, wounded 485, and inflicted torture on 2251. There were eighteen

District of Ganjam.

Vizagapatam. Desperate conduct of a poligar.

Rajamundry.

Masulipatam.

District of Guntoor.

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persons who killed themselves in despair on the approach of the banditti. Many of the natives, though unarmed, made a gallant defence, and it was afterwards in contemplation to allow them arms to protect themselves from gangs of robbers; but the precautions since adopted of utterly destroying the Pindaree combinations, will, it is hoped, form an effectual preventive of any repetition of such scenes[d].

Province of Khandesh.

Having proceeded southward along the eastern coast a little beyond the Krishna, we shall return to the west boundary of the great province of Gundwana, proceeding here also from north to south, and consequently beginning with the province of Khandesh, which is separated by the Nerbuddah from Malwah on the north, bounded on the west by Guzerat, and on the south by Aurungabad and Berar. The river Tuptee, which runs through it, from east to west, is of considerable size, with deep and steep banks of firm black earth, and sending off numerous ravines on both sides, intersecting the country for several miles. A considerable portion of this province formerly belonged to the Holcar family. It was well peopled and cultivated, but has of late years been ruined by plunder and war. The chiefs of the Bheel tribes possess the hills to the north of Boorhanpoor, and, besides their own people, keep some Arabs and others about them, to assist in making forcible exactions on their neighbours. Holcar's dominions here were ceded to the British in 1818. At this time, when the Mahratta power was reduced, the Arab colonies were strong in Khandesh, and it was necessary for the [illegible]ctors to expel them. They made a vigorous resistance, and the only choice allowed to them was transportation to their native Arabian deserts. When they were reduced by force, they escaped this lot in consequence of some misinterpretation which occurred in the course of the negociations. They were allowed to transport themselves wherever they pleased.—The Arabs have always made a figure as brave sol-

Arabian colonies.

[d] See p. 79, 80 of this volume. [e] See Prinsep's Narrative of recent political and military transactions in India, p. 415, 416.

diers in this part of India. In the Peshwa's army they received fifteen rupees per month, while the natives of the Deccan only received six, and those of Upper Indostan eight. The forts which made the most determined resistance in 1816, were Mulligaum, which surrendered in consequence of their great magazine having been blown up; Talnere, where the garrison, having acted treacherously under the mask of suing for terms, was put to the sword[f]; and Asseerghur, which surrendered after a vigorous resistance.

Province of Berar.

Berar is a province nearly of a triangular shape; the north-west side being bounded by Khandesh, the north-east by Nagpoor in Gundwana, which is sometimes erroneously represented as part of Berar, and the south by Aurungabad and Beeder. Its capital is Elichpoor. Berar is an elevated valley, almost equidistant from the west and east coast of the Deccan. It is thinly inhabited, and little cultivated, but some parts of it are naturally fertile, and contain rich grass pastures. The cultivated crops are wheat, maize, pease, and flax. In the beginning of spring a shocking ceremony takes place at Cala Bhairava, in the mountains, between the rivers Tuptee and Nerbuddah. It is the practice of some persons of the lowest tribes in Berar to make vows of suicide, in return for answers which their prayers are believed to have received from their idols. This is the place where such vows are performed in the beginning of spring, when eight or ten victims generally throw themselves from a precipice. The ceremony gives rise to an annual fair, and some trade. But, on the whole, every sort of prosperity has been wretchedly kept down by the lawless spirit of plunder which has been indulged by persons of various descriptions; and the government of the Nizam has had the utmost difficulty in stemming these irregular proceedings, partly in consequence of his own troops, and even his ministers, having been guilty of patronizing the mischief, and sharing in its spoils.

Cala Bhairava.

Vows of suicide.

[f] See a view of this fort in Prinsep's Narrative at p. 333.

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Province of Beeder.

The province of Beeder lies on the south of Berar, bounded by Aurungabad on the west, and by Gundwana and Hyderabad, but chiefly the latter, on the east. The surface is uneven, but not mountainous, and it is in general very fertile. The inhabitants are in the proportion of six Hindoos to one Mahometan, though it has long been subject to Mahometan princes. It is at present included in the Nizam's dominions. Beeder the chief town, was the capital of a Hindoo sovereignty before the Mahometan conquest. It was noted for works of tutenague inlaid with silver. It is much decayed, but contains the remains of some very good buildings.

Province of Hyderabad.

To the south and the east of this province is the large province of Hyderabad, extending to the Krishna river on the south, and bounded by the Northern Circars on the east; Gundwana and part of Beeder are conterminous with it on the north. It is an elevated table land, with a hilly surface, and therefore of a lower temperature than the adjoining parts of India. During three months in the year the thermometer is often as low as 45° or even 35°. Woollen blankets, shawls, and quilted silks are used as a protection from this degree of cold. A few of the principal nobility use English broad cloth as a luxury. The territory is naturally productive, but the cultivators are wretchedly poor, and much oppressed by their superiors. To the south of the capital, an extensive tract, at present desolate and covered with jungle, contains traces of ruined towns and inclosures, which indicate the former existence of a numerous and civilized population. The fiscal arrangements are so bad, that commerce labours under extreme discouragement.

City of Hyderabad.

The city of Hyderabad, the capital of the Nizam's dominions, is about four miles long, and three broad within the walls; the streets are narrow, crooked, and ill paved. Its population is reckoned 200,000. The palace and mosques are the only remarkable buildings. The court of Hyderabad retains more of the forms and ceremonies of

Court of the Nizam.

the old Mogul governments than any other in Indostan. The Nizam possesses large magazines full of the presents which he has, at different times, received from native and European powers, consisting of bales of cloth, cases of glass, china and glass ware, clocks, watches, and similar articles, which are hoarded without being ever seen. The Nizam is a vassal of the British government, but his court has sometimes been a scene of busy intrigue, and the ear of his highness has often been assailed with the suggestions of the enemies of that government, under such circumstances as could not afford the most distant prospect of bettering his situation, and exposed him to the risk of a total loss of his high rank. Some of these intrigues were instigated by Europeans hostile to England, during the late war.

Golconda. Golconda, to the east of the capital, though renowned for diamond mines, contains none at present, and it is doubtful if it ever did. But the fortress is a considerable depôt for diamonds brought from other parts to be polished and fashioned for sale by the diamond merchants of Golconda. The fortress is used as a state prison, where the obnoxious members of the Nizam's family are confined, in which number are at present included his wife, his mother, and two youngest sons.

Two provinces of the Deccan Proper remain to be mentioned, and both, according to existing divisions, are partly situated on the western shore, though extending a great way inland—Aurungabad, and Bejapoor.

Province of Aurungabad. The surface of the province of Aurungabad is very irregular, and in general mountainous toward the western Ghauts. It contains the sources of many rivers, but none of them acquire any considerable size within its limits. Most of it has been long in the possession of the Mahrattas, particularly the sea coast, which has, from that cause, been infamous for piracy. Its capital, Aurungabad, in lat. 19° 54′ N. and long. 75° 33′ E. was the favourite residence of Aurengzebe while viceroy of the Deccan. It continued

Its capital.

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the metropolis of the Nizams till they quitted it for Hyderabad, as being too close upon the Mahratta frontier. Ahmednuggur is a fortress in the middle of this province, beautifully situated among the mountains. It has been generally in the hands of a Mahratta chief, sometimes of Sindia, sometimes of the Peshwah. It is populous, and contains elegant architectural remains of Mogul buildings.—Dowletabad is a town and strong fortress, seven miles N. W. from the city of Aurungabad, belonging to the Nizam. The fortress is formed of an insulated mass of granite, and the only entrance is an ascent, part of which is a covered way cut through the heart of the rock, so that it can only be taken by famine. It contains within itself reservoirs of water. Not far from this is the village of Ellora, in the neighbourhood of which is found a most astonishing group of Hindoo temples, cut in the solid rock. These contain a sort of pantheon of all the Indian deities. The numberless sculptures, friezes, columns, and chapels, apparently suspended in the air, display, every where, a great refinement of taste united to labour inconceivable. The symbols seem to have been formed partly by Brahminical and partly by Buddhist devotees. At present they are not held in any veneration, nor visited by any class of pilgrims; but being in the neighbourhood of Dowletabad, which was in ancient times the seat of a powerful Hindoo principality under the name of Deoghir, they probably owe their origin to the zeal of the reigning families of that metropolis. The village and its lands being now transferred to the British government, we wait for a more complete account of the symbols and inscriptions, as none has hitherto been given by any competent scholar.

City of Dowletabad.

Antiquities of Ellora.

ISLAND OF BOMBAY.

To this province belongs the ISLAND OF BOMBAY, the seat of the principal British settlement on the west coast of India, in lat. 18° 56′ N. and long. 72° 57′ E. This small island is formed by two parallel ranges of whinstone rock, one on the west, five miles long, and another on the east, eight miles long. These rocks are united at each end by a low

belt of land, which seems to be of recent formation, and over which the sea is said sometimes to have broken, and flooded, 40,000 acres of land. The Goper river, belonging to the island of Salsette, and which runs into the channel separating this island from Bombay, is said to have occasioned similar inundations, and flowed quite across Bombay island into the ocean at its southern side. When first noticed by Europeans, Bombay was reckoned a most unhealthy place. It contained a cocoa nut wood.—The fortifications of this island are thought too extensive, as requiring too numerous a garrison. The houses are built of wooden pillars, supporting wooden verandas. The view of the bay from the fort is extremely beautiful. Bombay is a barren rock, unfit for agriculture; but possesses great advantages for trade and for ship-building, the rise of the tides being sufficient to permit the construction of docks on a large scale. The docks belong to the Company, but the persons who contract for the timber, the inspector on delivery, and the builders of vessels, are always Parsees, who monopolize every department, and build many large vessels, some of 1000 tons. The teak wood of which they are built is brought from the western side of the Ghaut mountains. The Parsees are exceedingly thriving, and contribute much to the prosperity of the settlement. This little island commands the whole trade of the north-west coast of India, and of the Persian Gulf. In 1814 the Company's marine at Bombay consisted of eighteen armed cruizers, besides armed boats, advice boats, and other craft, a force requisite on account of the swarms of cunning and ferocious pirates by whom these seas are infested. In 1716 the population was 16,000; in 1816 it amounted to 161,000. The European society at Bombay is less numerous than at the other two presidencies, and the salaries of the functionaries are smaller, consequently there is less profusion, although great abundance and even elegance, in their mode of living. The territorial possessions under the immediate jurisdiction of the Bom-

Its advantages as a station.

European society.

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bay presidency are small compared to those of Bengal and Madras, and lie chiefly along the Gulf of Cambay; but the inhabitants are among the most intelligent and industrious of Indostan, and carry on a very great trade. Very few capital condemnations occur in the criminal court, sometimes not one in six years.—Twenty days are required to convey a letter by post from Calcutta to Bombay. A telegraphic communication was once projected, but not carried into execution. It was apprehended that the stations in the interior might be exposed to the attacks of plunderers for the sake of concealing their own motions. The small town of Mahim, on this island, has a Portuguese church, to which a college for priests is attached, but their chief seminary is at Goa, where all attend who have any pretensions to learning.

Communication with Calcutta.

Island of Salsette.

The comparatively large island of Salsette, on the north of Bombay, was formerly separated from it by a narrow strait, but they are now connected by a narrow causeway. The length of the island is eighteen miles, and its breadth thirteen. The soil is fertile, and well adapted to the production of the most valuable articles; yet it unaccountably remains uncultivated, and covered with jungle, which makes it more unhealthy in its present state than Bombay. Some attention has lately been paid to the formation of roads, which, along with the causeway, have a natural tendency to introduce other improvements. The causeway gives great facility to the gardeners in bringing their produce to the Bombay market, but it is said to have injured the harbour. The operation of embankments in producing either depositions from the stagnation of the water at a particular spot from the meeting of opposite currents, or the contrary effect of an active current, attended by the deepening of a moveable bottom, is seldom foreseen with such precision as to afford certain practical rules on this point of engineering. That this island, at some period buried in the obscurity of early history, has enjoyed high prosperity, is attested by the remains of former great works found on it, such as tanks and terraces, accompanied with flights of steps. It

is also rich in mythological antiquities. There are several extraordinary caverns in it, one of which resembles that at Carli on the adjoining part of the continent, and contains two gigantic figures of Buddha, twenty feet high, showing that the works belonged not to the Brahminical, but the Buddhist system of faith. The Portuguese converted the place into a Christian church. They did not destroy the images as in many other instances; but, not having coolness enough to allow them to stand as simple monuments of art and of antiquated opinions, they converted them into Christian emblems, painted them red, and, with pious zeal, cherished them as valuable proselytes; many others, of an ugliness incorrigibly heathen, they utterly effaced. Considerable quantities of bay salt are made here in the shallows along the shore.—The island is estimated to contain 50,000 inhabitants, one fifth of whom are Christians, partly descendants of the Portuguese, partly a sort of converted Hindoos. The inhabitants are altogether an orderly race; a criminal trial does not occur amongst them for years; drunken quarrels and petty assaults being the utmost extent of their breaches of the peace. Here, as in Bombay, several Indian languages, together with English and Portuguese, are spoken with almost equal frequency, and writings on business are drawn up in all of them. On this island are the town and fortress of Tanna, the latter commanding the passage between the island and the continent. It was taken from the Mahrattas in 1773. Population.

Elephanta is a beautiful island in this group, about seven miles from Bombay, and five from the continent; composed of two long hills with a narrow valley between them, and is nearly six miles in circumference. At the landing place there was formerly an ill-shaped colossal statue of an elephant, cut out of a solid rock, which has now, in a great measure, fallen to pieces by its own weight. It was from this statue that the Portuguese gave the island its present name. This island contains the most celebrated of those artificial caverns which bear witness to Elephanta. Its cave.

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the influence of superstition in animating its votaries to execute the most astonishing labours. The entrance is fifty-five feet wide, its height and length about eighteen.

The temple itself is 130 feet long, and 123 feet wide; its height varies from 17½ to 15 feet; it is supported by twenty-six massy columns, cut out of the solid rock; the interior is covered with sculptures which differ from those of Kennery in Salsette, in being Brahminical. These have suffered severely from the assaults of the Portuguese. The most remarkable figure is a bust with three heads, called the Trimurti; the middle head representing Brahma the creator; and the other two Vishnu the preserver, and Siva the destroyer. Such are the leading capacities in which the character of the Deity is contemplated. These sometimes appear to be three representations of one Being, at other times the worshippers view them as distinct persons, according to the varying conceptions of a vague metaphysical theology. The length from the chin to the crown of the head is six feet; and the countenances would be remarkably beautiful were it not for an inordinate thickness in the under lip [g]. No document whatever exists to lead to any probable conjecture regarding the period at which this temple was formed, or the individuals to whom it owes its existence.

Caranja.

Between Bombay and the main land, and separated from the latter by a very narrow strait, is Caranja, or Oorun isle, to which convicts are sent from Bombay to be employ-in public works. A great quantity of salt is manufactured here, yielding a revenue to government of 11,000 rupees, (£1100.)

Henery and Kenery, and other islands.

About fifteen miles south from Bombay are the small islands Henery and Kenery, both fortified, and formerly a great resort of pirates. Four miles farther south are Colabba isle and Colwoman's island, which are esteemed well adapted for the accommodation of European troops on account of their great salubrity, and the facility with

g Maria Graham's Journal of a Residence in India, p. 55, &c.

which intemperance among the military may be prevented, and, though not hitherto so employed, seem to be reserved for that purpose, as they are not applied to any object of revenue.

Mahratta countries.

Returning to the continental territory of the province of Aurungabad, we find the large district of Baglana, one of the original Mahratta countries from whence that tribe first sprung into notice. Its Rajas yielded a sort of feudal obedience to Aurengzebe, and a tribute which was not regularly paid, its subjugation never having been complete. This country was among the first to throw off its nominal subjection to the emperor of Delhi, under the conduct of Sevajee the first Mahratta leader, and it remained under a Mahratta government till 1818. It is exceedingly mountainous, and owed its habitual independence to its natural strength. Sungumnere is another large district, subject to the Peshwah, before the late extinction of the power of that family. The districts of Jalnapoor, Bheer, and Futtehabad, belong to the Nizam. That of Jooneer contains Poona, the late capital of the Peshwa.

Mahratta nation.

In the ancient tables of the Hindoos the term Maharashtra is given to a division of the Deccan, chiefly in the north-west quarter. Khandesh, Baglana, and part of Berar, were included in the original country of the Mahrattas[h] extending north-west as far as Guzerat and the Nerbudda, where the Grassias and Bheels commence. The Mahrattas were leagued with the pirates of the western shore, and bore with them the common name of Ganim, or robbers[a]. The Mahratta language is now diffused much more extensively. This people is not, like the Rajepoots, originally of the military cast. They are divided into three principal tribes; the Koonbee, or farmers; the Dungar, or shepherds; and Goalah, or cowherds. Their make is diminutive, and has nothing of the grace and dignity of the Rajepoot. It is only in very modern times that this nation has attracted

[h] Orme's Indostan.

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notice, being unknown in history from the time of the Mahometan conquest till the reign of Aurengzebe. They were governed by a plurality of discordant chiefs, till their efforts were combined under the adventurer Sevajee, the illegitimate offspring of the Odeypoor family. After various adventures, he settled at Poonah, where he died. One of his descendants delegated all his authority to a Brahmin, who afterwards assumed the sole power, under the title of Peshwa, fixing his residence at Poona, and making a mere pageant of the representative of the royal stock, viz. the Rajah of Satara, whom he kept in his possession. In the mean time Bhoonsla, the paymaster, seized the eastern portion of the empire, and fixed his seat of government at Nagpoor. The family of Sindia established itself in Malwah and Khandesh, and seized a great part of Rajepootana. Guicowar seized a great part of Guzerat; and Holcar part of Malwah. These chiefs were always disposed to act in a confederate capacity; and each divided his conquests among the others. Their possessions were thus very much mixed; the same district, or even the same town, being often held by a plurality of chiefs, each with separate rights. Their more remote possessions used to contain no larger number of genuine Mahrattas in proportion to the natives than India now does of English to Indians, and in later times the countries were kept in subjection chiefly through the instrumentality of Europeans, whose tactics were opposed to the physical force of the Hindoos and Mahometans.

Origin of the Peshwa.

Other chiefs.

Mahratta armies.

Making a constant trade of war, the Mahrattas could at any time raise a numerous cavalry, though badly maintained and irregularly paid. This army was joined by Mussulmans, Hindoos, Rajepoots, and latterly by the Pindarees, all of whom conceived it their right to make up for the want of regular pay by ravaging the countries of the conquered. "A Mahratta camp," says M. Tone, "is formed without any regard to regularity, and always occupies a great extent of ground. When the prince's tent

is fixed, the great bazar was established in front of it, and there all sorts of goods are exposed for sale. This bazar constitutes a considerable source of revenue to the prince; every merchant and every tradesman belonging to it pays a duty of about five rupees per month. The dancing women, who follow the camp in hundreds, are also liable to a regular tax, and even the pickpockets, a great number of whom follow the army under the protection of the prince. The cavalry make very long marches, and endure great fatigue. They sometimes give opium to their horses, to carry them through their fatigues."—This people, while extending their ravages and their conquests, met with a severe and bloody check at the battle of Paniput in 1761, when they were overthrown by Ahmed Shah Abdalla, the Afghân sovereign. In 1795 they confederated to invade the dominions of the Nizam, an expedition which turned out a mere marauding incursion, but before and after this they were much divided, and were engaged in warring against one another. The forces of Sindia and the Peshwa met with a signal defeat from Holcar near Poona, in 1802. The Peshwa, Baje-Row, in consequence of this event, fled to Bassein near Salsette, where a treaty was entered into between him and the British, and he was in a few months after reinstated at Poona by General Wellesley, (now the Duke of Wellington.) This state, however, like the others belonging to the Mahrattas, was miserably ill-governed; oppression, extortion, rapacity, embezzlement, and discontent, were every where prevalent. All the offices at the court of Poona were hereditary. Not only did the people suffer, and industry consequently languish, but the members of the government perpetually preyed openly or secretly on one another, and on the general interests. A Mahratta government always considered itself as at war. At the festival called Dusserah, in the end of September, after the breaking up of the rains, they used to prepare regularly for their expeditions. The only weapon used by the horsemen is a sabre, in the

Their mutual quarrels.

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use of which, and the management of their horses, they are extremely dexterous. The principal functionaries of a Mahratta state were Brahmins: they were the only individuals who had it in their power to accumulate wealth, and they are remarkably well qualified for public business by their extraordinary urbanity and command of temper. A Brahmin, however, after being allowed to fill his coffers for years, generally fell at last under the grasp of his rapacious prince. The countries overrun by the Mahrattas have been much depopulated, and filled with misery. "I do not believe," says M. Tone, "that a government can be mentioned on the face of the earth less capable of protecting its subjects than the vague and uncertain system of the Mahrattas, nor an administration more rapacious, more corrupt, less stable, and less fitted to provide for the happiness of individuals, and the tranquillity of the state. To this are to be ascribed the extreme misery of the people, the oppression, poverty, and famine which they suffer, and to which this unhappy country seems to be devoted [i]." The restlessness of the Peshwa, (which might be called perverse if we were not obliged to acknowledge that an impatience of subjection and control is universal among those who have ever tasted the sweets of independent rule, but which, in this instance, exhibited a strong contrast to the indulgence received,) hastened the downfal of the Mahratta power. In 1815 that chief was detected plotting, in direct violation of recent treaties which he had made with the English, not only when at their mercy, but when they had saved him from falling a victim to the hostility of his own brother chiefs. His first flagrant act was the murder of the Guicowar's ambassador, through the agency of Trimbukjee Dainglia, his minister. In consequence of this act his capital was surrounded, and he was obliged to fulfil the article of a former

Civil establishments.

Fall of the Peshwa.

[i] Tone, Aperçu de la constitut. polit. de l'empire des Mahrattes, traduit dans les Annales des Voyages, Tome V. Chambers on the Mahrattas, in the Asiatic Researches.

agreement, of keeping up an auxiliary force of 5000 cavalry, and to give up certain districts for maintaining it. After this, trusting to the co-operation of Sindia, Holcar, and others, he declared open war, by attacking the British residency at Poonah. Defeated in this attempt, he was reduced to the situation of a wandering fugitive with his army, was at last taken, obliged to renounce all sovereignty for himself and his family, and sent to reside in exile at Pithoor, a place of Hindoo pilgrimage in the province of Allahabad. The greater part of his territories were taken under the immediate rule of the British authorities. The Raja of Satara was established in his sovereignty, and had some additional territory assigned him from that of the Ex-Peshwa. This arrangement reconciled the military class of the nation; the full maintenance of the religious establishments, and the preservation of their sources of revenue, quieted the religious orders; and the cultivating and mercantile classes spontaneously hailed the revolution as the first dawn of their freedom and prosperity.

City of Poona.

The city of Poona, the former residence of the Peshwa, is in lat. 18° 30′ N. and long. 74° 2′ E.; 100 miles from Bombay, and seventy-five from the nearest part of the coast. It is indifferently built, open and defenceless, and occupies only two square miles of surface. Several of the houses are large, and built of square blocks of granite to a height of six feet, above which there is a frame of timber with slight walls. The streets are named after mythological personages, and the walls of the houses painted with figures of the gods, forming thus a spacious pantheon where the history of the Brahminical deities may be studied in traversing the streets. The ancient palace is surrounded by high thick walls, and was inhabited by the Peshwa's brother and the other members of his family, while he himself lived in a modern house in a different part of the town. He had made arrangements for building a new palace, to be executed by British architects, and the ground was regularly consecrated by being plastered over with ashes and

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cow-dung. To the east of the city there are excavations with mythological sculptures of the same kind with those of Elephanta, but much inferior. The Moota Moola river which flows past this city, afterwards joins the Beema, a tributary of the Krishna, and during the rainy season a journey may be accomplished by water in a light canoe all the way from Poona to the Bay of Bengal. The population has recently increased; it is now estimated at 150,000. The British residency is about two miles from Poona.

Caverns of Carli.

Thirty miles N. W. from this city are the remarkable excavations of Carli, sculptured over, not with Brahminical figures like those of Elephanta, but with emblems of the Buddhist or of the Jain religion, *i. e.* figures of elephants, of men, and of Buddha, and these are confined to the capitals of the pillars; there are no personifications of the deity, and no separate cells for sacred rites. The cave is highly magnificent. It has elegant hexagonal columns, supporting a roof ribbed with teak wood cut so as to fit the cave exactly. The portico is highly laboured, and contains some figures remarkable for gracefulness of design [k]. Four miles from Carli is the remarkably strong hill-fort of Loghur.

Incarnate deity of Chinchoor.

About ten miles west from Poona, at Chinchoor, a personage resides who, like the great Lama, is venerated as an incarnation of the favourite Brahminical deity, Ganesa or Gonputty, the god of prudence. He lives in a large dirty pile of building, accompanied by many Brahmins, who subsist on the revenue of the land which has been appropriated to the establishment by the bounty of superstitious neighbours. When Mrs. Graham visited the place in 1809, the existing Deo of Chinchoor was a boy of twelve years of age. This person worships his other self in the form of a statue, that other self being the greatest of the two, and not impaired by incarnation [l].

Province of Bejapoor.

South from Aurungabad is the large province of Beja-

[k] Maria Graham's Journal of a Residence in India, p. 64. This work contains a plate of the cavern, and another of the portico. [l] Ibid, p. 70.

poor, extending as far south as the river Tomboodra, the great southern tributary of the Krishna. The maritime parts of it, lying between the Ghaut mountains and the sea, go under the general name of the Concan; the remainder is the basin of the Krishna and its tributaries, the Beema and Gutpurba. The horses reared on the banks of the Beema are held in great estimation by the Mahrattas. In this province the style of building among the lower classes undergoes a perceptible change: the roofs to the north of the Krishna are pitched and thatched; those on the south are flat, and covered with mud and clay. This whole province was, during the Peshwa's power, exposed to dreadful disorder and depopulation, in consequence of the projects of rapine and oppression which that prince indulged against the leading families, till at last, in 1804, tranquillity and a more steady arrangement were established by British arbitration.

City of Bejapoor.

The city of Bejapoor, written Visiapoor in old European books of travels, seems to have been a very extensive place when it was the capital of an independent sovereignty, and before it was taken by Aurengzebe in 1689; and the fort was one of the largest in the world. At present it exhibits scarcely any thing but shapeless heaps of ruins, attesting its ancient magnitude. The fort, measured by the counterscarp of the ditch, is about eight miles in circumference. The flanking towers are numerous and of great size, and the ditch cut out of the solid rock. Here are some magnificent ruins of the tombs of Mahometan saints. Most of the buildings, excepting the palaces in the fort, appear to have had little or no wood used in their construction. They are generally built of massy stone, in the most durable style, the workmanship being at the same time minute and elegant. The city is said to have contained amazing wealth; and many valuables, and quantities of the precious metals are often found among the ruins. Twelve huge guns are still left, affording a specimen suited to the enormous size of the fort itself.

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That part of this province which is called the Concan declines gradually westward from the Ghauts to the sea, and contains many streams, but no large river. This coast being elevated, and broken into small bays and harbours, was particularly favourable to piracy, and went by the name of the pirate coast. Much of it is rich. It produces remarkably strong hemp, but the plant will scarcely bear any seed. In 1816, the Concan, and the whole maritime country from the 17th to the 21st degree of latitude, were scoured by a marauding leader of the Pindarees, called Sheik Dullo. This coast contains several places of note.

Fort Victoria.

Beginning at its northern extremity, we find Fort Victoria on a lofty hill near the entrance of the Bancoot river. In 1756 it was a piratical state, and was taken by Commodore James, in concert with the Mahrattas, and ceded to the British along with its district, consisting of nine villages, in exchange for Gheria. It became extremely populous in consequence of the security which property enjoyed within its limits, and would have been much more so if there had been an adequate supply of water.

Gheria.

The fortress of Gheria, situated on a rocky promontory connected with the continent by a narrow neck of land, is in lat. 17° 56′. In 1707, Conajee Angria had established here an independent sovereignty, and possessed a numerous piratical fleet. The place was taken in 1756 by Admiral Watson and Col. Clive, and the fleet destroyed. There were found in it 200 pieces of cannon, and moveable property to the extent of L.120,000. The island of Dewghur on this coast, in 16° 21′, commands a very fine harbour, where vessels of 600 tons may ride in safety during the whole monsoons. Between the British possessions in Malwah and the Portuguese district of Goa, is the principality of Warree, the chief of which is called the Bhoonsla. This was the piratical state longest tolerated by the Bombay government, being only kept in check by a blockading squadron. Deadly animosities subsisted between the Bhoonsla and the Raja of Colapoor, by which the whole territory was kept in a

Warree.

state of desolation and misery. Warree surrendered to Col. Keir in 1818. The fortified island and town of Malwan, in lat. 15° 53′ N. thirty-three miles from Goa, were acquired by the British from the Raja of Colapoor in 1813, and Vingorla, in its neighbourhood, from the Ranny of Sawunt Warree, along with a certain extent of territory, for the purpose of suppressing piracy.

The city of Goa, in the southern part of the Concan, is a place of great note, being the metropolis of the Portuguese possessions in India, in lat. 15° 30′, two hundred and fifty miles south-south-east from Bombay. It is situated on the river Goa, or Mantoa, which flows from the Ghauts into the Gulf of Goa, by several mouths, forming the peninsula of Bardess and the islands of Goa, Combarem and others. The old city of Goa is eight miles up the river, and now deserted by the secular inhabitants on account of its unhealthiness. The natives call this city *Tissoari* or *Trikurii*[m]. According to the traditions of the country, the island was peopled by a colony of Moorish merchants driven from different parts of Malabar; but it was a commercial place at a much earlier period. It contains many magnificent churches in a style of architecture excelling any thing done by Europeans in other parts of India. New Goa is at the mouth of the river within the forts of the harbour. In 1808, there were 200 churches in the Goa province, and above 2000 priests. The territory still possessed by the Portuguese in this quarter is 100 miles long and 20 broad. Goa was taken from the Hindoo Rajas by the Bhamenee Mahometans about A. D. 1469. In 1510 it was taken by Albuquerque, and made the capital of the Portuguese possessions. That nation does not seem to have taken possession of much territory, but merely made India an object of pillage, on which they maintained a large European army. In 1580 they possessed, on this coast, Diu, Damaun, Choul, Bassein, Salsette, Bombay, and Goa. They had factories

Goa.

Portuguese territory.

[m] Tiefenthaler, I. 361. Pennant, II. 110.

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at several other stations, where they influenced the respective governments. After the conquest of Portugal by Philip II. of Spain, in 1580, the Portuguese settlements were neglected, and left to their own resources; and the vices of their internal government, and the exorbitant power of the inhabitants, hastened their decay. At present, with the exception of a few of the highest classes, the great mass of the Portuguese population in India consists of decendants of Europeans by native women, and numerous converts who have joined them, and who still retain many pagan customs. At present the Portuguese nation possesses only Diu, Damaun, Goa, Dhelli on the island of Tinor, and Macao in China. Goa is the seat of an archbishop, a viceroy, a chancellor, with several other great functionaries, and a tribunal of the inquisition.

Colapoor and Parnella.

The small state of Colapoor is partly in the Concan, and partly within the Ghauts. Its capital is in lat. 16° 19'. It has been in modern times a scene of habitual confusion, like most other Mahratta states. Parnella, in its neighbourhood, is reckoned the most healthy district in the Mahratta dominions.

Satarah. Its Raja.

Satarah, in the northern part of this province, is a remarkable place, as being the residence of the royal family to which the Peshwa yielded a nominal submission, whilst he kept it under his own power, and used the Raja as a mere pageant. When a new Peshwa succeeded to power, he repaired to Satara to receive the keelaut, or dress of investment. The country round Satarah was privileged with exemption from military depredations. When the Peshwa was reduced and obliged to abdicate in 1818, part of his territory was allotted to form a dependent sovereignty for the Raja of Satarah, while the rest was incorporated with the former British conquests. This sovereignty is bounded by the Ghauts on the west, by the Neera and Beema on the north, by the Warner and Krishna on the south, and by the Nizam's dominions on the east. The net resources of the Raja amount to fifteen or sixteen

lacks of rupees. The country is in the interim occupied by the British authorities till it becomes duly tranquillized, and till the Raja, who is a young man, becomes adequate to the duties of his situation [n].

At a distance of thirty miles S.S.W. from Satarah, is the fortress of Wassotah, in the midst of the finest and most magnificent scenery. It was besieged and taken in 1818. Punderpoor, on the Beema, is a regular, well-built, populous, and thriving city, where almost all the chiefs of the Mahratta empire had dwellings. The first stories of the houses are of stone, and the second of brick. This has received some celebrity as the scene of the assassination of Gungadhur Shastry, the ambassador of Guicowar, by persons hired by the Peshwa and his minister Trimbukjee. The person slain was a high Brahmin, and the foul act was perpetrated during the solemnities of religion, while myriads of pilgrims were collected in the city. It proved the source of all the subsequent misfortunes and final overthrow of the Peshwa.—Darwar, a fortified town, was ceded by the Mahrattas to Tippoo in 1784. In 1790 it surrendered to the Mahrattas, assisted by the British, after a siege of twenty-nine weeks, when the town was almost destroyed, and the country totally devastated. It is now, with the adjacent district, attached to the presidency of Madras.—Badaumy, fifty-five miles east from Darwar, on the river, is one of the strongest hill-forts in India. It was taken by storm in 1818. Hoobly, thirteen miles from Darwar, is a populous and respectable mart, containing numerous and rich bankers, who regulate the currency of the neighbouring country. The surrounding country is well wooded and watered. Shahnoor, near the Tomboodra, was once the capital of a small Patan state. It was dreadfully demolished, and the country ravaged by Tippoo. Copal, at a lower part of the Tomboodra, was taken by storm by an English detachment in 1819.

Wassotah.

Punderpoor.

Darwar.

Hoobly.

[n] Narrative of the Political and Military Transactions of British India, under the administration of the Marquis of Hastings, by Henry T. Prinsep, 4to. 1820. p. 419, 420, &c.

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Bijanagur.

Twenty miles east from this is Bijanagur, a Hindoo city of great antiquity and celebrity. Its wall is eight miles in circumference. It was the capital of the kingdom called Narsinga or Bisnagur in old European maps, which comprehended the whole Carnatic above and below the Ghauts. This capital is described in glowing colours by the eastern writers [o], and half a century ago it still presented some remnants of its ancient splendour [p]. It was founded in 1344, and must not be confounded with another Bijenagur or Visianagur, founded in 340, on the confines of Khandesh and Malwah [q]. The descendant of the Narsinga monarchs possesses, under the title of Rajil or little Rajah, the fort of Anagundy, one of the ruins of the city of Bijanagur, with a small revenue.

INDIA SOUTH OF THE KRISHNA.

The southernmost portion of continental India still remains to be described. The river Krishna is mentioned in a general way as its northern boundary, which it actually is at one part; the province of Hyderabad, being on the north, and the Balaghaut on the south side of that river: but the upper part of the Krishna flows within the province of Bejapoor. The geographer, therefore in the western part, takes for the boundary an important tributary of the Krishna, farther south, called the Tomboodra. The Krishna, in like manner, before it empties itself into the bay of Bengal, winds round to the north, on which account a considerable part of the Circars already described, lies on the south of the river; and here we take for our boundary, a small river called the Gundegama. The territory which has this line formed by the Tomboodra, Krishna, and Gundegama, for its boundary on the north, and the sea in all other directions, terminating in Cape Comorin in the south, has a triangular form.

General physical features.

[o] Abdool Rizacque, Voyage dans l'Inde, edition de M. Langlès, ch. 4. et note 36. Khondemir, in the Asiatic Ann. Register, 1800. Misc. Tracts, p. 226.

[p] Tiefenthaler, I. p. 369. [q] Wahl, II. 956, &c.

Physically viewed, it consists of a great central table land, (principally occupied by the Balaghaut districts, and the Mysore,) separated by abrupt and mountainous declivities from a low belt, various in breadth, lying between it and the sea on the west and east. The term Balaghaut, signifying, above the Ghauts, is often applied to the whole central eminence, while the low belt is called Payeen Ghaut, or, below the Ghauts. In this whole country the number of Mahometans is comparatively small; consequently the primitive Hindoo manners and customs are preserved more entire than in other parts of India; a circumstance promoted by the insulated state in which all strangers who have taken up their residence in these regions have remained. It contains, besides the followers of the Brahminical system, which are the most numerous inhabitants, many Jains, some colonies of Jews settled in Cochin and other parts of Malabar, and many Christians of different denominations. In its present political situation this whole territory is included in the presidency of Madras.

The Carnatic, or Coromandel province.

The term Karnata was applied to an ancient Hindoo geographical division, comprehending all the high table land; but it has in modern times lost its original application, and has been transferred to the adjacent provinces on the sea-coast. These are still, for the sake of distinction, called by some the lower Carnatic. The soil of this country is in general light and sandy, sometimes inundated with torrents of rain, at other times burned up with the land winds impregnated with fine dust; it produces tobacco, betel, indigo, *holcus sorghum*, and dourra. Rice is less abundant than in many other provinces. Agriculture depends on artificial canals and reservoirs, built at an enormous expense by the princes and heads of villages. The basin of Saragambra, among others, is eight English miles in length, and three in width, and for eighteen months supplies thirty-two villages with the water required for cultivation. The sea-coast is so shallow, that flat-bottomed boats are required for landing; yet manufactures and

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trade have attracted the Europeans to this coast so little favoured by nature. The inland parts contain hills of sienite, with a small proportion of feldspar; and the soil of the flat country seems to consist of the debris of the same rock. The loamy part of the soil is often strongly impregnated with iron. It is also impregnated in many places with common salt. This is the case near Madras, where the soil is heavy but sterile, and at certain depths contains strata of cockle and oyster shells at a distance of nine miles from the sea. Here trees will not thrive. The only trees which grow spontaneously on the barren parts of the Carnatic are the *Melia azedarach*, or common bead-tree, and the *Robinia mitis*.

Choultries.

In the towns and villages, and along some of the principal roads, are choultries for the accommodation of travellers. The small ones are single square rooms, without windows; the larger ones are handsome and extensive buildings, erected by munificent or pious individuals. A Brahmin always resides near, who furnishes the traveller with food and a mat to lie on, and they are provided with a tank or well, where the pilgrims perform their ablutions. These establishments abound for forty or fifty miles round Madras; but they are kept in a dirty state, and the water of the ponds is very impure from neglect. The Carnatic

Temples.

abounds in temples or pagodas, which here are always within an area, surrounded by a wall as high as the temple itself. Over the gate-way is a high tower, serving as a historical monument of the god to whom it is dedicated. It contained formerly a prodigious number of forts, which, from the long continuance of internal tranquillity, are

Inhabitants.

now going to decay. The population is estimated at five millions. The Mahometans are very thinly scattered over the country, excepting at the Nabob's court. The number of Christians is reckoned 40,000, one half of whom are Roman Catholics. The natives are generally much inferior in bodily vigour to the inhabitants of northern Indostan. Here many of the Brahmins follow secular professions.

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The most brilliant and interesting place in this province, at the present day, is the seat of the presidency, MADRAS. On approaching this city from the sea, the flat sandy shores and low hills present an appearance of barrenness which wears off when we come nearer, and find such crowds of human beings covering the beach. The public buildings present an elegant appearance, having colonnades to the upper stories, supported on arched bases, and covered with the beautiful shell mortar of the country, called chunam, which is hard, and so finely polished as to have exactly the appearance of marble. The fortifications of Fort George, and the pagodas and minarets, at a little distance, mixed with trees and gardens, give an air of magnificence to the scene[r]. The station, however, is extremely unfavourable for a capital. A rapid current runs along the coast, and a powerful surf beats even in mild weather. Pondicherry would have been a far more eligible situation, lying to windward, and placed in a fertile country.—Some local contrivances have been adopted here for surmounting the disadvantages of the landing. Large and light boats are used for crossing the surf. They are formed of thin planks sewed together, with straw in the seams instead of caulking; the great object in their construction being flexibility. The ships' boats sometimes anchor on the outside of the surf, where they wait for the country boats from the beach. When the unsettled state of the weather renders landing dangerous, a flag is displayed on shore to warn the sailors. A sort of loose raft called a catamaran is often used in bad weather for maintaining communication between the shore and vessels at anchor. The catamaran-men wear a peculiar cap made of matting, in which they can keep any letter intrusted to them quite safe, although they themselves should be washed off the raft, a circumstance which often happens, and is not much minded, as they find it easy to regain their situation by swimming. Madras differs from Calcutta in having no extended European town, except a few

MADRAS.

Nature of the shore.

Catamarans.

[r] Hodge's Travels in India, p. 2, 3, &c.

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houses in the fort, as the settlers here live entirely in their villas, and merely repair to the fort to transact business.—

Fort George.

Fort George, though not so large as Fort William at Calcutta, is handsome and strong; it requires but a moderate garrison; is on commanding ground, and easily relieved by sea. The garrison consists of one European regiment and four native battalions. In the middle stands the original fortress, now converted into government offices and town houses for some of the civil servants. Here are also the church, the governor's house, and the exchange, on which a lighthouse is erected, the light of which is ninety feet above the sea, and seen at a distance of seventeen miles. The government house is on the edge of the esplanade in the choultry plain, a large and handsome edifice; near to it is the residence of the Nabob of the Carnatic, called the Chapauk gardens. The villas or garden houses are only one story high, of a pleasing architecture, with porticos and verandas, supported by chunamed pillars, and surrounded by trees and shrubs; the floors are covered with rattan mats. During the hot winds the air is kept cool by mats formed of the roots of the fragrant cusa grass, which are placed against the doors and windows, and kept constantly wet; through these the draughts of wind are transmitted which serve to ventilate the apartments. Whenever the use of these is intermitted, the sensation produced is like that of a furnace. Yet there is on an average less extreme heat here than at Calcutta. The botanic garden, which was fitted up at a vast expense, was almost destroyed by a hurricane in 1807. The roads in the immediate vicinity are broad, well made, and agreeably ornamented with trees. The huts are roofed with tile, and present a better appearance than those of Bengal. The society of Madras is not so extensive as that of Calcutta; provisions are less abundant, and more expensive. The style of living, however, is nearly the same. The Mount road is a favourite resort, where the ladies and gentlemen repair with their gayest equipages. Along this road banyan and white tulip trees are planted on each side. On this road, at a distance of five miles from Fort St. George, is a cenotaph

Garden houses.

Society.

to the memory of the Marquis Cornwallis, where the gentry drive slowly about and converse in the cool of the evening. In this city there are two orphan hospitals, a male and a female, both admirably conducted. Madras is visited by French pedlars from Pondicherry, selling laces and artificial flowers; and a few Mahometans go about selling amber, mocha stones, coral, and other trinkets. Madras is famous for jugglers, who are celebrated for superior dexterity: one of their most unpleasant feats is that of introducing a sword into the stomach, which they learn by early practice, introducing short pieces of bamboo in the first instance, which are gradually lengthened as the parts become habituated. To the north of the fort is the black town, which, besides the Hindoos, contains Armenian and Portuguese merchants, Chinese, Moors, and black Jews. It is quite void of plan, splendid brick palaces being mixed with wretched bamboo cabins. In 1794 the population was estimated at 300,000 souls. The commerce of Madras is inferior to that of the other presidencies. The Company's staple article is piece goods. The markets are dearer than at Calcutta, but have been greatly benefited of late by the removal of some restrictions to which they had formerly been subjected. Domestic servants receive higher wages than at Calcutta, hence fewer are employed by any individual; yet the service is equally well performed[a].

Pedlars.

Jugglers.

Black town.

Population.

It was in 1639 that the English first had a fixed establishment on this coast, by virtue of a grant from the Hindoo sovereign reigning at Chandergherry, a descendant of the dynasty of Bejanagur, containing permission to build a fort. In 1653 the agent and council were raised to the rank of a presidency. In 1744 it was taken by the French, but was restored at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1749, in a greatly improved state. In 1756 the fort was greatly strengthened, and withstood in 1758, and 1759, a siege from the French, conducted with much skill and bravery. In 1767, and 1781, Hyder approached very near it with his armies.

Origin and progress of this settlement.

[a] Lord Valentia's Travels.

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Presidency of Madras.

The territory now forming the presidency of Madras is very extensive, comprehending the whole of Indostan south of the Krishna, the Northern Circars, and some tracts acquired since the degradation of Bajee Row, the last of the Peshwas. This territory contains three princes, the Rajas of Mysore, Travancore, and Cochin, who collect their own revenues, and exercise a degree of power in the internal management of their respective states; but, with reference to external politics, even these are wholly subservient to the British power, are protected by a subsidiary force, and furnish large annual contributions. The rest of the territory is under the immediate jurisdiction and control of the governor and council at Madras.

In 1811 the population of these provinces, not including the subjects of the three Rajas, was computed to exceed 12,000,000. The number of civil servants on the establishment was 206; in 1818 it was 241. In 1811, the regular troops of all descriptions under this presidency amounted to 50,456, and the officers to 1347. In 1818, the military officers had increased to 1506, and the medical officers were 183. In 1813, the European inhabitants not in the service, residing within the limits of the presidency, were estimated only at 170, which was undoubtedly under the real number[1].

Chain of Forts.

The fortifications chiefly subservient to the defence of these territories in times of political disturbance, extend in a line crossing the continent from Fort George by Vellore, Bangalore, Seringapatam, and descending the western Ghauts, to Tellicherry. There is another line farther north comprehending Chitteldroog, Bellary, and Gooty; and a third, extending from Masulipatam, by Ellora and Hyderabad, to Julna, where it is taken up by the Bombay army, and extends by Serroor, and Poona, to Bombay.

District of Nellore and Ongole.

The most northern district of the Carnatic is that of Nellore, and Ongole. It contains several copper mines remarkably fusible, and free from iron. But the attempts made to work them seem not to have answered the ex-

[1] Fifth Report on Indian affairs.

pectations entertained. The general rocks are primitive, consisting of mica slate of various colours. The manufacture and sale of salt are carried to a great extent in this district. Nellore, the capital, is situated on the south side of the Pennar river. It has a fort, the walls of which are of mud, with many port holes for small arms, made of tubes of baked clay laid in the wet mud in the building of the wall, and afterwards consolidated in the drying. In 1787, a peasant having struck on some brick work in his field, dug, and found it to be the remains of a Hindoo temple; he found also a pot which contained Roman coins and medals of the second century, mostly Trajans, Adrians, and Faustinas, all of gold, many of them fresh and beautiful, others defaced and perforated as if they had been worn as ornaments.

Nellore.

Roman antiquities.

To the south of this district lies the northern district of Arcot; containing Arcot, the Mussulman capital of the Carnatic, sixty-eight miles S.S.W. from Madras. It is chiefly inhabited by Mahometans who speak the Hindostanee or Deccany language. It is thought to be the capital of the *Sorœ* of Ptolemy; but the existing town is quite modern. It is extensive, and contains excellent houses. In this district is the Hindoo temple of Tripetty, the most celebrated in southern India, situated in a hollow inclosed by mountains, and not permitted to be visited or seen by any Christian or Mahometan. For this privilege a large sum is annually paid to government, which, in 1758, amounted to £30,000 [a]. Here also is Vellore, a military post of great importance previously to the conquest of the Mysore, built in a valley on the river Palaur. It is defended by a number of forts situated on the surrounding heights. The mountains here contain old pagodas ornamented with inscriptions in the Tamul character. Vellore commands the main road leading from the valley of Veniambady to the Mysore. Its ditch contains large alligators. To this place the family of Tippoo was removed, after the taking of Seringapatam. Here also, in 1806, a serious revolt of the native troops, and a mas-

Northern Arcot.

Temple of Tripetty.

Vellore.

[a] Fr. Buchanan. Rennel's Memoir.

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sacre of their officers, and other Europeans, took place, which was subdued, and the insurgents mostly put to the sword, by Colonel Gillespie and a party of dragoons.—Vellore is the present place of exile of the ex-king of Kandy.

Southern Arcot.

The next district is Southern Arcot, extending as far south as Tanjore and Trichinopoly. In 1806 this district was in a wretched condition; many parts of it, naturally fertile, lay waste, and the revenue was collected with difficulty. In 1809 the leading inhabitants of the villages mostly combined to farm their own lands, in consequence of which the country and revenue have been greatly improved.

Fort of Gingee.

Gingee is reckoned one of the principal forts of the Carnatic. It stands on a stupendous rock, and, when well defended, is impregnable by the ordinary modes of attack. By the Indians it is esteemed, on account of its situation, the strongest town in the Carnatic. It is very unhealthy, and proved the grave of a large proportion of the French garrison kept in it while in the possession of that government. It contains the ruins of the palace of the old Chola kings of the Carnatic.

Pondicherry, the French settlement.

In this district Pondicherry is situated, though not comprehended in its jurisdiction, being in the possession of the French nation. It was once the most splendid European settlement in India. It stands on a sandy plain near the sea, producing only palm trees, millet, and a few herbs; but the surrounding district produces cotton and rice. Though a better natural station than Madras, it has no commanding advantages for commerce, and during the war with France, the inhabitants were reduced to great distress and poverty. It derives all its importance from being the capital of the French possessions in India. The French power in India began in 1749 under M. Dupleix, and ended with the surrender of Pondicherry in 1761; but during that interval it was remarkably brilliant; since that time it has always belonged to the British during war with France, and has been restored to the latter power on the conclusion of peace. At the peace of Amiens its inhabitants were estimated at 25,000,

the revenue 40,000 pagodas, and the extent of coast five miles. Bonaparte took this opportunity to send out a large equipment, including a staff of seven generals, and carrying with them £100,000 in specie. On the recommencement of hostilities the ambitious views thus manifested were disappointed, but M. Lenois, the admiral, had the good fortune to escape with his fleet. The French system of policy in this part of India was harsh and intolerant towards the natives. They destroyed the temples, forced the people to do work repugnant to their castes, and prohibited the residence of any family which was not Christian within their boundaries. Their revenue, in 1817, amounted to 12,988 star pagodas.

Trivicary. Trivicary, a village sixteen miles N. W. from Pondicherry, seems to have been at one time a place of great extent and importance, as the pagoda is one of the largest size, having a stone tower over the gateway eight stories high, and the tank belonging to it occupied several acres of ground. It is remarkable for the petrifactions found in its neighbourhood. One of the petrified trees is 60 feet long, from two to eight in diameter, and in most places as hard as flint.

Its pagoda.

Petrifactions.

Fort St. David. Sixteen miles south from Pondicherry is Fort St. David, once the head of the English settlements on this coast, but when taken by the French under M. Lally, the fortifications were demolished and never rebuilt. Close adjoining is the town of Cudalore, in a situation naturally strong. It is thought a better natural station than either Madras or Pondicherry. It was the seat of a British factory at an early period, and has been the scene of some sanguinary conflicts. Between the years 1780 and 1784, the country became desolate, the villages being laid in ruins, but since that period a happy and rapid improvement has taken place[x].

Cudalore.

Pagodas of Chillambaram. The pagodas of Sidamburam or Chillambaram are situated on the sea coast, in lat. 11° 28′ N. thirty-six miles south from Pondicherry, and form a favourite place of pilgrimage. They are encircled with a high wall of blue stone.

[x] Orme's Indostan.

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The chief of the four pagodas is on the same plan with that of Juggernaut, though on a smaller scale, and is esteemed a master-piece of architecture. Each of the three gates is surmounted with a pyramid 120 feet high, built with large stones above forty feet long and more than five square, all covered with plates of copper, adorned with a variety of figures neatly executed. The whole structure extends 1332 feet in one direction, and 936 in another. In the year 1785 the main gateway was repaired by a devout widow, at an expense of 50,000 pagodas. The circuit forms a vast gallery, divided into apartments, in which the Brahmins live. In the area of the temple there is a large pool, skirted on three of its sides with a beautiful gallery supported by columns. A broad stair of fine red granite leads down from each of these galleries to the pool. On the side opposite to the water there is a magnificent hall, ornamented with 999 columns of blue granite covered with sculptures representing all the Brahminical deities. One of the greatest curiosities of this pagoda is an immense granite chain of exquisite workmanship, extending from four points of the circumference of the cupola to the nave, and forming four festoons 137 feet long, with the ends held by four enormous wedge-shaped stones belonging to the arch. Each link is somewhat more than three feet in length, and the whole of a beautiful resplendent polish [y].

The Chingleput or Jaghire.

The territory in which Madras is situated is called the Jaghire or Chingleput, now forming a collectorship. This territory was dreadfully ravaged with fire and sword by Hyder Ali, in 1780, and at the conclusion of the war in 1784 it contained no vestige of man excepting the bones of persons who had been massacred, and the walls of houses and temples which had been burned. After this it was doomed to suffer by a dreadful famine. Chingleput, its capital, is respectably fortified. Conjeveram, or the golden city, in the Chingleput, is an extensive place, containing a vast number of weavers. It has a magnificent pagoda adorned with beautiful sculptures. St. Thomé, three miles

St. Thomé.

[y] Legoux de Flaix, I. p. 118.

south from Madras, called by the natives Maliapuram, or "the city of peacocks," contained some Nestorian Christians when taken by Gama, who gave it its present name. It was taken in 1672 by the French, and in 1749 by the English, and is now subject to the presidency. Mahabalipuram, thirty-five miles south from Madras, is a collection of ruins on the sea side, containing many sculptures, also a temple cut out of the solid rock, with well finished figures of idols in *alto relievo* on the walls. At another part of the hill, there is a figure of Vishnu reposing on a pillow consisting of a numerously coiled snake. There are at the distance of a mile and a half from the hill, two pagodas cut out of the solid rock; a colossal lion, and an elephant as large as life. The town of Sadras, forty-two miles south from Madras, is in possession of the Dutch. It used formerly to be a populous place, and famous for the manufacture of ginghams.

Mahabalipuram.

To the south of the preceding is the district and principality of Tanjore, which, in point of fertility, is the second territory in Indostan; the first place being due to Burdwan, in Bengal. Prodigious mounds have been created to prevent the waters of the Cavery from rejoining those of the Coleroon, after their separation at Trichinopoly. The waters, thus preserved at a desirable height, are distributed by canals in all directions. The inhabitants are uncommonly industrious, and expert in husbandry. In 1807, their number was as follows:

District of Tanjore.

Brahmins, ...	17,149
Sudras, including native Christians, . .	42,442
Mahometans, ...	1,457
	61,048

The Mahometans of this quarter are all descendants of Arabian refugees who left Arabia in the eighth century, and are called Lubbies. The territory was never occupied by any Mahometan power; and the Hindoo religion has been preserved in considerable splendour. The people seem strongly attached to the British government, which

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indulges and protects their worship, and makes a liberal allowance from the revenue for the maintenance of the temples. In 1799, the territory was transferred to the British jurisdiction. The Raja reserved several palaces, two forts, which are kept in excellent repair, and an ample revenue for the maintenance of his dignity. The present Raja was educated under M. Schwartz, a respectable Danish missionary, and among Christians, yet he adheres steadily to the Brahminical faith and observances, but he is particularly kind to the Danish missionaries, and in other respects liberal in his sentiments. The Brahmins here are peculiar in having a printing press, which they employ in honouring their gods. The present Raja has been all along sensible of his dependence on the good will of the British, and sets a high value on any attention which he receives from them. He understands the English language, has an English library, and reads the English newspapers. He made an earnest representation of the claim which he had to a higher title than that of Excellency first given to him, as he was not inferior to those Indian princes who were entitled Highness; and was greatly delighted when this claim was acquiesced in. The voluntary immolation of widows is still retained here, though discouraged by the Raja, and not countenanced by natives of rank or education; the Brahmins however derive a profit from the cruel rite. The capital city, Tanjore, contains the finest specimen of the pagoda in Indostan; and within it a bull, carved from a block of black granite, which is an excellent example of Hindoo sculpture. In remote ages this was the great seat of learning, and here the almanacks were framed[z].

State and character of the present Raja.

Combooconam.

Combooconam, 23 miles N. E. from the city of Tanjore, was the ancient capital of the Chola race, and still exhibits remains which indicate its former splendour; such as tanks and pagodas, which are very fine. Its houses are neat, and chiefly inhabited by Brahmins. The country around it is rich and highly cultivated. At this place there is a conse-

[z] Lord Valentia's Travels. Fr. Buchanan. Rennel's Memoir.

crated pond, which every twelve years has the quality of purifying those who bathe in it from all their sins, and forms a powerful attraction for countless multitudes of pilgrims.

Tranquebar, the Danish settlement.

On the east side of Tanjore is the Danish settlement of Tranquebar, the territory attached to which is of very small extent. The fort is large, and filled with population both European and native. The fortifications were a sufficient protection against the attacks of predatory cavalry, formerly not uncommon, but are not fitted to sustain a defence against a regular force. In 1812 the population of Tranquebar and its sixteen villages was,

Europeans,	487
Mixed breed, born in India,	370
Hindoos,	16,775
Christian natives,	601
Mahometan natives,	1,446
	19,679

Negapatam.

Since 1814, when it was restored to the Danes, it has greatly improved in commerce and population.—Negapatam, a maritime place, twenty miles south from Tranquebar, is the *Nigama* of the ancients. It has a good anchorage, and at the close of the last century exported annually four or five thousand bales of stuffs of various kinds. When in the hands of the Dutch it was the capital of their settlements on this coast, and had a very extensive gold coinage.—On the north of Tanjore is the zemindary of the Tondiman family, which has been always friendly to the English, and has been much befriended in its turn; their finances being arranged and recovered at times of embarrassment by the management of agents appointed by that nation.

District of Trichinopoly.

Trichinopoly, to the west of Tanjore, higher up the river Cavery, was a favourite residence of the Mahometans of the southern Carnatic. The district is fertile, though inferior in this respect to Tanjore. The climate is rendered milder than it would otherwise be by the moisture with which the air is impregnated. On the adjacent island of Seringham are two magnificent pagodas, which the Hin-

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doos have long venerated. The island is formed by the separating of the Cavery into two branches, the northern being called the Coleroon. The chief pagoda is a mile from the western extremity of the island. It is composed of seven square inclosures, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These are 350 feet distant from each other, the outward wall being nearly four miles in circumference, and some of the stones forming the columns of its gateways are thirty-three feet long, and five in diameter; those which form the roof are still larger. The other pagoda is a mile to the east, and has only one inclosure.

District of Dindigul and Madura.

The district of Dindigul and Madura is situated chiefly about the tenth degree of north latitude, to the south of the preceding. At this part the low land of the Carnatic becomes broader. The central table land having terminated farther north, this lies on the south of it as well as on the east. Dindigul is a fine valley, through which the river Vyar flows with an easterly course, and, through the greater part of the year, is expended entirely on irrigation, so as never to reach the sea. The climate of Dindigul is usually the finest in India. May is the hottest month. In December and January, the thermometer seldom falls below 64°. It is in January, July, and August, that the superiority of its climate is most conspicuous. The numerous hills with which the province is interspersed occasion frequent cooling showers; yet this district was in 1809, 1810, and 1811, desolated by a destructive epidemic fever, which greatly thinned the population, and destroyed the cattle. From April 1st, 1810, to the corresponding term in the following year, 21,510 persons died. The deaths in ordinary years do not exceed 3438. The town of Dindigul contained 7000 inhabitants before the epidemic: in 1812 their number was reduced to 3195. Part of this district goes under the name of the "territory of the Poligars," but is not peculiarly entitled to that distinction from any singularity in the mode in which the land is held. The heads of villages

Dindigul division.

always have possession of the lands; and, sometimes, when favoured by the strength of the country, these have assumed the name and character of poligars; but the true poligars were originally banditti, who afterwards obtained a regular jurisdiction within their boundaries.

Madura Division.

The Madura subdivision of this district, lying farther south, and at less elevation, is warmer than Dindigul; the heat in December and January being seldom below 66°. In May it ranges from 79° to 98°. Some marshy tracts adjoining the hills render the climate unhealthy; and near Tondiman's country, there is a quantity of jungle which has a similar effect. The ancient sovereigns of this country were named the Pandian race, and it is supposed to have been the *Madura Regia Pandionis* of Ptolemy. In conjunction with Trichinopoly it forms a Hindoo division named Madree. It was formerly one of the holy countries, the capital being styled the southern Mathura, and it still contains some remains of ancient grandeur. Christianity has gained considerable ground in this quarter. In 1785 there were 18,000 Roman catholics, and many protestants. In 1809, 1810, and 1811, it was depopulated by the epidemic already mentioned. Madura, the capital, is an ancient city, and formerly well defended by a strong fort, three miles and three quarters in circumference. It sustained many sieges in the wars from 1740 to 1760, being often in the hands of refractory poligars, who then abounded in the country; but the cessation of warlike operations has now superseded the utility of such forts. The population has decreased of late years, and the people are poor and very ill lodged. The streets are narrow, and rendered particularly dirty by the stagnant water of the old drains, and by a multitude of cattle kept within the city. It contains a famous temple consecrated to the god Vellayadah, to whom the devotees bring whimsical offerings of shoes of colossal magnitude, highly ornamented. A maritime part of this district, called Marawah, contains a race of professed robbers, called Coilleries, who frankly avow their profession, consider it as their legitimate hereditary right, and merely

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observe that matters are now so changed as greatly to curtail the exercise of it. This territory contains a caste called Totiyars, among whom a plurality of male kindred have their wives in common. There is a zemindary in it called Shevagunga, where the dogs are held in high estimation among the Hindoo princes, while these animals in every other part of India are regarded with unreasonable contempt. At the town of Ramnad, near the coast, there is a protestant church of very neat architecture. In all this country the females have a leading influence in fixing hereditary successions[a].

Island of Ramisseram.

The island of Ramisseram, lying between this coast and the island of Ceylon, is greatly celebrated in the Brahminical mythology. It contains a pagoda much frequented by pilgrims. Rama, an incarnation of Vishnu, is believed to have erected this building on his return from vanquishing Ravan, the king of the giants, and conquering the island of Ceylon. Rama is believed, on this occasion, to have restored for a short time by miracle the isthmus which, at a more remote period, had connected Ceylon with the continent, and of which the chain of islands, rocks and shallows, now extending across, forms the remnant. This line of rocks is called "the bridge of Rama," an appellation for which the Arabians have substituted "the bridge of Adam." The pagoda is extremely massy, resembling the Egyptian architecture. Water is brought hither from the Ganges by the pilgrims, poured over the god, and then sold to the devout at a price which brings a considerable revenue to the temple. The guardianship of this sacred isle is vested in a family of devotees, the chief of which is Pandaram, who is bound down to perpetual celibacy, and the family succession is kept up by the sisters; a mode of establishing legitimate descent which prevails over the southern extremity of India[b].

District of Tinnevelly.

The district of Tinnevelly occupies the extremities of the Carnatic and of the whole peninsula, being separated from the province of Travancore on the west

[a] Fifth Report. [b] Cordiner's Account of Ceylon, vol. II. p. 1—31.

coast by the Travancore ridge of mountains, a continuation of the western Ghauts. It contains some rivers and salt marshes, separated from the sea by high sand hills. This district has one peculiarity of climate, that a fall of rain is always expected late in January, which raises the rivers, and replenishes the tanks. For this reason the latter are of smaller size than in the preceding districts.

Climate of Trichendore, and Courtallum.

Two places in this district are remarkable as cool retreats for persons injured by the climate, viz. Trichendore, and the valley of Courtallum; the latter, in particular, is highly grateful to the feelings of a European, early in June, after the commencement of the heavy rains of Malabar, and it contains a waterfall, under which invalids take a shower-bath, which greatly contributes to their recovery. But from February to May this place is close and sultry, being deprived of the influence of the southerly winds. Trichendore is on the sea-side, thirty miles east from Palamcotta. Rice and cotton are the chief produce of this district. The cotton is of a remarkably fine quality. The English, before they obtained possession of Ceylon, made attempts to introduce the cultivation of cinnamon and other spiceries in this district, which might have succeeded to a certain extent, had not subsequent political changes rendered such plantations unnecessary. The nutmegs and cloves entirely failed; these articles are not even produced in Ceylon, and cinnamon itself thrives only in a limited portion of it[e]. The cotton of this district is exported to Madras, and there consigned for sale to China. In this district the peculiar Hindoo manners are supposed to be more pure than any where else. The principal towns for size and population are Tinnevelly, Alvartinnevelly, Spermadevy, and Cüldacoorchy, but none of much consequence. At Tuticorin, ninety miles north-east from Cape Comorin, there is a pearl fishery, but the pearls are not equal in quality to those found on the coast of Ceylon. A superintendent deputed by the British government at-

Introduction of spicery plantations.

[e] See the subsequent book, *passim*.

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tends constantly during six weeks. The net revenue derived from it in 1807 was 81,917 star pagodas.

Cape Comorin.

In this district Cape Comorin is situated, called in the Malabaric language Kumari and Kanyamuri, forming a majestic termination of the mountain chain of the Ghauts and of this triangular portion of the Asiatic continent. Its summit is 1294 English yards in height, covered with a bright verdure, overlooking a fine cascade, and a plain filled with forests. Parvati, who in the Hindoo mythology is goddess of the mountains, seems, according to Arrian to be the divinity who has sanctified this promontory and the adjoining ocean, and for this she is surnamed Kumari. Francis Xavier had the address to turn these traditions to good account for promoting the objects of his mission, by making one of the most conspicuous of these rocks the site of a church dedicated to the Virgin Mary.

CENTRAL PLATEAU.

Turning now to the Central Plateau, we find, in the most northern part of it, bounded by the line of the Tomboodra and Krishna, a province usually called "the Ceded Districts of Balaghaut." This term is restricted to the territories acquired by the British government in 1800, and now divided into the collectorships of Bellary and Cuddapah. The ceded districts contain more ground than Scotland. The waters of the Tomboodra and Krishna form a strong barrier to this province for the greater part of the year, and also contribute to its fertility. The soil is in general more fertile than either that of Malabar or Canara. Drill husbandry is universal. The period of the rains is uncertain, but one night's rain enables a farmer to sow his seed, and three nights secure a good crop. Where the land is overrun with shrubs, the expense of clearing is great. The good trees are for the most part entirely destroyed by the wars with which the country was long devastated. The British found the whole social arrangements of this territory in the most horrible confusion. The rebellions of the poligars, struggling with the more organized rapacity of the Mahratta and Maho-

Ceded Districts of Balaghaut.

metan governments, the extortions of the revenue officers, and the plunderings carried on by persons who purchased the privilege of freebooting, had made every man a ferocious enemy to his neighbour. Few families escaped assassination, or were free from the imputation of murder. When the British power had begun to establish a system of order and tranquillity, and the country was beginning to recover, it was visited by a severe scarcity in 1803 and 1804, from the failure of the necessary rains, which required all the exertions of government to prevent the horrors of absolute famine. But since the year 1805, in which the season was favourable, these districts have greatly improved. In 1806 the population amounted to 1,907,376, and had increased by one-fourth in five years, partly from the return of inhabitants who had emigrated during the Nizam's domination. In remote times, this province formed part of the last Hindoo empire of Bijenagur. It was in the possession of different Mahometan powers in succession till 1800. It is of great value as a source of supplies for the armies in the Deccan.

District of Bellary.

The district of Bellary is in the west part of the province. The zemindary of Harponelly in this quarter, was restored to the family after the fall of Tippoo's power; at least an heir was brought forward, though it was suspected that he was not legally entitled to the succession, but set up by the Brahmins with the view of perpetuating the management in their own hands, and preventing the power from being absorbed by government. This is a frequent practice when a line becomes extinct. Some public treasure was carried off from this place by the Mahrattas and Pindarees in 1817. Soondoor, twenty-five miles from Bellary, was a favourite place of pilgrimage with the Peshwa, who, in 1807 and 1815, made a visit to the temple of Cartic Swamy, (the god of war of the Hindoos,) but a crowd of other pilgrims took the opportunity of accompanying him, and committed dreadful irregularities. On the last of these occasions it turned out to have been a premeditated plan on the part of the Peshwa to

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take forcible possession of the district, though it was preceded by the most formal engagement that all his followers should be left on the north side of the Tomboodra. In the territory of Curnoul, in the north-east of the province, called in our maps Ghazypoor, there are diamond mines at a place called Banaganpilly.

District of Cuddapah.

The collectorship of Cuddapah is in the east and south part. Here abundance of soda is found in a black soil, among the Pennaconda hills. The spots producing it are known by their barren aspect and the black colour which the mould exhibits in the morning. It is mixed with kitchen salt. Nitre also is abundant, and easily extracted by a simple process. About seven miles from the town of Cuddapah, there are diamond mines on the banks of the Pennar river. This river intersects the district of Gandicotta, and finds its way through a deep and perpendicular gap in the Gandicotta hills, into the plain of Cuddapah. The fort of Gandicotta, was formerly noted for its strength, but is now a place of no importance. The valley is fertile and populous, and celebrated for its diamond mines.

Province of Mysore.

On the south and west of the preceding province is that of Mysore, the theatre of the celebrated military events in which first Hyder Ali, and afterwards his successor Tippoo, were the most conspicuous actors. It is situated chiefly between the eleventh and fifteenth degrees of north latitude; but, consisting of a table land, nearly 3000 feet above the level of the sea, it enjoys a much more temperate and salubrious climate than any other country of equal extent within the tropics. From the remains of hedges, and other signs, this province appears to have been, at some remote period, in a much higher state of cultivation than at present; but it is now rapidly recovering. It produces, besides rice, the chicada, the dodada, the *Phascolus mango*, the *Dolichos catsjang*, and the sugar cane. The crop of *Cynosurus corocanus*, or raggy, is by far the most important of those raised on the dry field, and forms the support of all the lower ranks of society. Abundance of castor oil is pro-

duced, which is burned in lamps, and given to milch buffaloes. As to sugar plantations, it is only the prodigious difference in the cheapness of labour that enables those of Indostan to approach, in point of economy, to those of the West Indies, which have so decided an advantage in point of soil, climate, carriage, and agricultural and mechanical skill [d]. Poppies are cultivated both for the sake of the opium and the seed, which is used in the sweet cakes eaten among the most luxurious of the natives. The cocoa tree is very productive in this territory, notwithstanding its distance from the sea. It seems to flourish in any situation which conjoins the requisite temperature with an impregnation of sea salt in the soil. From this and other species of the palm tribe, the juice is obtained which ferments into the liquor called toddy, a term which seems to be a corruption of *tari*, the Mahometan term for the juice of the palmyra, or *Borassus flabelliformis*. The great defect in agriculture here consists in the imperfect cleaning of the fields from the grass roots, which vegetate with great vigour, and are difficult to subdue. In 1804 the number of families in Mysore was 482,612, of which only 17,000 were of the Mahometan religion, though the province had been thirty-eight years under zealous sovereigns of that faith. The Brahmin families were 25,370, the Lingait 72,627, and the Jain 2063. The Hindoos of this province are immersed in the most deplorable superstition. When two parties in a village have a dispute, it is not uncommon for one of them to have recourse to an expedient by which both suffer: this is, to kill a jack-ass in the street. After such an act the place is deserted; no Hindoo will live in it unless by compulsion. Another expedient of revenge is, for the proprietor of a garden to catch a number of monkies and squirrels in a net, and convey them by stealth into the garden of another, where they destroy the produce, and are protected from being killed by the superstitious veneration in which they are universally held. These acts of reciprocal injury have of late become more

[d] For a full account of the cultivation and manufacture of sugar in this province, see Dr. Fr. Buchanan's Journey through the Mysore, &c. p. [illegible].

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rare from being found ultimately so unprofitable. The men of this province are stout and healthy, and their complexions a tinge fairer than those of the natives of Coromandel. The women in general possess graceful forms, and dress in a becoming style. The division of time here is singular. Instead of dividing the diurnal period into twenty-four hours, and each hour into sixty minutes, they divide it into sixty hours, consequently twenty-four minutes form an hour. In the country round Seringapatam, the people are divided into what are called right hand and left hand sides[e]: the first comprehends nine castes, and the second eighteen. The circumstances which add dignity to the members of any caste are, its following no useful employment; being restricted from the pleasures of the table; and being devoted to piety and learning. Hence a disgusting hypocritical cant is the prevailing fashion. The arrangements which take place in the family of the Raja of Mysore are whimsical in the extreme. The males are divided into two great branches, the Raja Bundas, and the Collalays, who intermarry. The head of the first is the Curtur or sovereign, and of the other the Dalawai. Some of each family are of Vishnu's side, others of Siva's; none wear the linga[f], and all acknowledge the Brahmins as their spiritual guides. The Curtur, on ascending the throne, whatever religion he has been educated in, always adopts the ceremonies of the Sri Vaishnavam. On the contrary, the females of both families wear the linga, reject the authority of the Brahmins, and are under the spiritual guidance of the Jangamas. Such inconsistent arrangements are not uncommon among the Hindoos.

Power of the Raja.

This province is less subject to the English than most of the others, the Raja of Mysore enjoying great influence under the patronage of the supreme government. In 1812 the Raja having attained the age of nineteen, and shown talents adequate to the active charge of his dominions, together with a desire to enter on the exercise of his

[e] Dr. Fr. Buchanan's Journey, vol. I. p. 77. 250. II. p. 268. 294.

[f] An indecent emblem of fertility

prerogative, the Dewan Purneah, his minister, who had previously the sole management, was at first actuated with the most indignant resentment, and used insulting conduct to the Raja; and, when the change of administration was carried into effect, conceiving himself degraded, was so deeply affected that he lost his understanding from a paralytic attack, and soon died.

Seringapatam.

The leading city in this province is Seringapatam, the capital of Tippoo, in lat. 12° 25′ north, and long. 76° 45′ east. It is situated at the upper end of a large island formed by the Cavery, which is here a large and rapid river, and has an extensive channel interrupted with granite rocks. The island is about four miles long, and a mile and a half broad. The neighbouring country rises gradually from both sides of the river, the ground being finely watered, partly by native streams and partly by canals conveying the water from places where the river has been dammed across. The fort is an injudiciously contrived building, in an unfinished state, and occupies about a mile at the west end of the island. Tippoo retained the long straight lines of wall, and the square bastions of the Hindoos; and his glacis was in many places so high and steep as to afford shelter to the assailants. Hyder's palace at the east end of the island is built of mud, but is an elegant and handsome native structure. Near this is the magnificent mausoleum of Hyder, where himself, his wife, and Tippoo, lie buried under tombs of black marble. The British government is at the expense of covering these with rich cloth, and maintaining the former establishment of priests to offer up prayers, and of musicians to perform the Nobut. The palace in the city, though large and massy, has, like all the public edifices, a mean appearance. Hyder's palace is now the residence of a surgeon; his seraglio is converted into a European hospital; his private apartments are occupied by the resident, and his public rooms by European soldiers [8]. Tippoo's seraglio is an artillery barrack. All these buildings look heavy for want of windows, and are too closely shut up to suit the taste and

[8] Dr. Fr. Buchanan, vol. i. p. 69

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convenience of their present possessors. This island in Tippoo's time probably contained 150,000 inhabitants; at present they may be estimated at 32,000, besides the garrison. Many have gone to Mysore, the residence of the Raja; and some Mahometans who originally belonged to the Carnatic have returned to their native country. Timber is dear here, being brought from the western Ghauts. Bread also is dear; and the European soldiers are obliged to eat rice; but meat and vegetables are both abundant and of excellent quality.—Seringapatam was the scene of two memorable warlike events; each decisive of the war in which it occurred. One was the successful attack by Lord Cornwallis on Tippoo's fortified camp, under its walls, on the 6th of February, 1792. Tippoo's army consisted of 40,000 infantry, besides a large body of cavalry. For the attack 2800 Europeans and 5900 native infantry were selected. The attacking army lost 535 men in killed and wounded. Eighty guns were taken; the Sultan lost 4000 men, and his army was, by subsequent desertion, reduced to 20,000. Tippoo relinquished one half of his dominions, and paid three crores and thirty lacks of rupees (about £3,500,000) in bullion. The force brought against him on that occasion was one of the most formidable ever collected in India; consisting of 11,000 Europeans, 31,600 natives in the British service; and, belonging to the Mahrattas, the Nizam, the Raja of Travancore, and the Coorg Raja, 40,000; the persons attached to the camps of the confederates exceeded 400,000; the bullocks employed in bringing supplies amounted to half a million; there were several hundred elephants, and many thousand camels.—The other warlike event was the storming of the city on the 4th of May, 1799, by General Harris. The garrison amounted to about 5000 men, of whom a great proportion was slain, and the dead body of the brave Tippoo was found under a gateway. The particulars of his death remain otherwise unknown; and it was never discovered who had obtained possession of his valuable necklace of pearls. The British took possession of the island, and it has ever since been

Tippoo's defeat.

Tippoo's final overthrow and death.

kept strongly garrisoned. As a fortress, it controls the west coast of Malabar, and the adjoining low and open districts of the Carnatic on the east and south. The spot, however, is unhealthy, and liable to epidemics. Intermittent fevers prevail over the whole of the Mysore.

City of Mysore.

The city of Mysore, the ancient capital of the province, and the present residence of the Raja, is in lat. 12° 19′ north, and long. 76° 42′ east; about nine miles north-east from Seringapatam, and in the same valley. Tippoo had attempted to remove it from its former site to an eminence about a mile distant; but it is now in its old station. The Raja's fort is well built, and kept in very good order. The ancient name of the place was Purragurry; but in 1524 the fort was built or repaired, and received the name of Mahesh-asoor from a buffalo-headed monster who was overthrown by the prowess of the goddess Cali. This name has since been contracted to Mysore.—We have already, in our general account of the physical aspect of India, taken notice of the river Cavery, which, from its great subserviency to agriculture, is the most useful river in the south of India.

Chittel-droog.

Chitteldroog, the chief town of a district, has a remarkably strong fort, belonging to the Raja, on a rock with five peaks, 2640 ells in height. The surrounding country is dry and clear, but it is reckoned unhealthy.

Bangalore.

Bangalore is a large fortified town, seventy miles north-east from Seringapatam. Here Hyder had constructed a fort according to the best fashion then followed among the Mahometan states; but Tippoo, finding it quite insufficient to sustain an attack from the British troops, destroyed it. Dewan Purneah, however, the late minister of the Raja, rebuilt it in 1802. It used to be a place of great trade, but its prosperity was ruined by the domineering interference of Tippoo in the concerns of trade. The Mahometans of this place now suffer great distress from the change of the government. In this part of the country a peculiar affection of the skin is very common, in which it becomes entirely white. It does not in any way affect the health of the individuals in whom it oc-

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curs; and their children are like those of other people. The town of Maggri, twenty-two miles west from Bangalore, is filled with pagodas, public choultries, and monuments of Indian architecture and sculpture. In the neighbourhood are many iron forges, and a manufacture of steel. A great quantity of sandal-wood is found in the adjacent forests; the best of it grows on a rocky soil.

Province of Coimbatoor.

On the east of Mysore is the province of Coimbatoor, between Malabar on the west and Salem on the east; the Ghauts are in its western part, and from thence some tributaries of the Cavery flow eastward through the province. It is on the whole fertile. The ox is considered by the people here as a living god, who gives them their bread. In every village one or two bulls are kept, to which monthly or weekly worship is paid; yet much of the country which has been formerly cultivated now lies waste. In the useful arts the people are much inferior to the inhabitants of Mysore, and the latter are inferior to the natives of Madras and Calcutta. The capital Coimbatoor is 112 miles south by east from Seringapatam. It contained only 2000 houses in 1801, but in Hyder's time it had double the number. Tippoo sometimes resided at Coimbatoor, and built a mosque in the place. At Perura, two miles from this city, there is a celebrated temple, dedicated to Siva. The idol is said to have placed itself here; and afterwards, about 3000 years ago, a Raja of Madura erected the temple over it. This, and the temples of Mailcotta and Seringapatam, were spared by Tippoo when he issued a general order for the destruction of all idolatrous temples. The building is highly ornamented, but the figures are rude, and some of them indecent. The height of the mountainous part of Coimbatoor is not exactly ascertained. In January, 1809, it was visited by a party of Europeans, who found the cold severe enough to freeze water to the thickness of half an inch, while the thermometer in the adjacent country stood at 84°. This hilly tract is divided into three countries, called the three Naads, which are in-

habited by three distinct classes of persons: the first are, the Todevies, who are exclusively herdsmen, and go bare-headed and bare-footed. The Koties are more diminutive, and their features are less expressive; they consist of cultivators, artizans, musicians, and dancers; like the former, they wear no covering on the head or feet. The third class, called the Bergies, are the principal cultivators and landholders; and are supposed to have emigrated from Mysore 300 years ago. These three classes of persons speak distinct languages, wholly unintelligible to one another.

Province of Barramahal.

To the east of the preceding province, and separated from it by the river Cavery, is the province comprehending Salem and Barramahal. It is, on the whole, an elevated region, declining to the south-east from the central table land, the western Ghauts forming its north-west frontier. The principal grains cultivated in it are maize and rice. Two crops of the former are obtained in the year, one of which is reaped in April, the other in September. It also produces a quantity of cotton. A great part of the land lies waste. Barramahal is in its northern part. The most elevated country consists of cold hills, where the natives of the adjoining districts are unwilling to settle. The poligars of the high lands have been restored to their estates on condition of paying a fixed rent or tribute, but have no jurisdiction over the inhabitants. When a rich man constructs a reservoir at his own expense for irrigation, he is allowed to hold in free estate by hereditary tenure one-fourth of the lands so watered; but is bound to keep the reservoir in repair. Tanks of this sort, where the holder of the free estate can be compelled by the inhabitants to do his duty, are well known to be much better kept than those supported by government. The fort of Kistnagherry is on a rock 700 feet in height. The British troops were repulsed from this place with considerable loss, in an attempt to storm it in 1791. This province, in general, is full of beautiful and picturesque situations.

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Western Coast.

The coast to the west of the central plateau, contains some provinces which remain to be described, viz. Canara, Malabar, Cochin, and Travancore.

Province of Canara.

The province of Canara begins at Cape Rama, at a short distance from Goa, in the Concan. It extends south till it comes in contact with the province of Malabar. The tillage lands of this province are well cultivated with rice, though the surface is so rugged (being traversed by rocky hills from the Ghauts to the sea) that the produce must be transported from one part to another on men's heads. Bullocks are seldom used. Manure is scarce. The cattle are not much larger than long legged goats, a circumstance ascribed to the constant humidity of the surface. Gardens of cocoa trees are not so numerous as in some neighbouring parts, as the rice cultivation is so much more profitable; but there are some sandy spots well adapted for these trees. Good trees yield from fifty to a hundred nuts annually, in four crops; weak ones less than fifty.

Revolutions and present state.

This province remained undisturbed in the hands of Hindoo princes till Hyder Ali subdued it in 1763. He found it in a state of high cultivation. It devolved to the British in 1799, and has ever since been singular for a state of perfect tranquillity, prosperity, and an easy realization of the revenue. The land in this province has always been more in the situation of private property than in the rest of India, and the revenue is comparatively moderate. The inhabitants have, under their present masters, become more comfortable in their situation, and make a better appearance in their dress, than formerly. Farms and possessions are usually very small, and cultivated by the resident proprietors with a minute attention, and an ardour, which are apparent in the neatness which prevails in the inclosures, and in every part of the culture.

Population.

In 1807 the population was estimated at 576,640 souls, of whom the Brahmins amounted to 98,610, an unusually large proportion, and thought by some to be a cause of the superior civilization of this province. The Jains are more

numerous than in any of the adjacent countries. Tippoo destroyed many of the towns, and took 60,000 Christians captives to Mysore, from whence few ever returned. BOOK XLVIII.

This province is usually divided into North and South Canara. North Canara, which is the largest, lies between the thirteenth and fifteenth degrees of latitude. The sea coast here is chiefly occupied by villages of Brahmins; the interior parts belong to the Buntar caste. The Brahmins here are mostly descended from those of the north of India, and are held in great contempt by the Dravida Brahmins of the south, chiefly because they eat fish. There are said to be five different nations between Onore and Tellicherry, who, though mixed together, retain distinct languages and characters, and a distinct national spirit; the Nairs, Coorgs, Tulavas, Concanies and Canarese[h]. The Comarapeca, or true Sudras of this division, are both cultivators and soldiers, strongly inclined to robbery, and had acquired an uncommon degree of cruelty during times of anarchy. In a particular portion of this division there were, in 1800, 4834 houses occupied by Brahmins, 1500 by Mahometans, 385 by Christians, 147 by Siva Bhactars, and 87 by Jains. North Canara.

Soonda is a small subdivision, situated above the Western Ghauts. The town of Soonda was at one time a very large city; three miles in diameter each way being occupied with houses; but the houses have been reduced to 100, chiefly by the ravages of the Mahrattas and Hyder. In the western part of this subdivision the garden cultivation is the chief object with the farmers, who raise betel nut, black pepper, betel leaf, cardamoms, and plantains. The town of Karwar has an English factory and fort, and was formerly a noted seat of European commerce; but went to ruin in the time of Tippoo. The town of Onore was formerly a place of great trade, especially in pepper. It also was totally demolished by Tippoo; but part of it has been lately rebuilt, and a customhouse has Soonda. Karwar. Onore.

[h] Abbé Dubois.

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Lake of Onore.

been established in it. The lake of Onore is of great extent, reaching nearly to the Ghauts, and contains many islands, some of which are cultivated. It abounds with fish, which are dried, and form a considerable article of inland commerce. During the dry season the water is very brackish, but by the great supply which it receives in the rainy season from numerous streams, it becomes quite fresh. The town of Barcelore, thought by some to be the *Barace* of the ancients, was once a considerable place of Portuguese and Arabian trade. In 1557 it was governed by a Ranny or female sovereign. The town of Cundapoor is situated on a river, which forms the boundary line between north and south Canara. The mouth of the river forms a lake which receives five fresh streams, has only one opening into the sea, and contains a number of islands.

South Canara.

South Canara is called Tulava among the Hindoos. The soil here becomes worse in proportion to the distance from the sea. The interior is occupied by Hindoos, and the sea-coast by Mahometans, here called Moplays. In 1800 the population consisted of 206,633 males, and 190,039 females. The number of houses was 80,000, of which 7184 belonged to Brahmins, 5223 to Mahometans, 2700 to Jains, 2545 to Christians, and the remainder to low castes of Hindoos. The number of slaves, male and female, was 7924. During Tippoo's government the Hindoos were obliged to skulk in the woods, and all who could be caught were circumcised, by which rite they lost the Hindoo caste, and became good Mahometans, forming a caste by themselves. Many of the Christians also of this country were compelled to profess Islamism, but more than 15,000 have returned to the church. Before the time of Tippoo the Christians had twenty-seven churches in this neighbourhood. Jains greatly abound, and seem to have been, at no remote period, the prevailing sect in this province.

Mangalore.

Mangalore, in this part of the province, is a flourishing sea-port town, in lat. 12° 53′, built in a beautiful situation

round the shore of a small peninsula, which is elevated in the centre, and once contained a fort in that situation. In Hyder's time the principal merchants were Moplays and Concanies; but since the British acquired the government, many men of property have come to settle in it from Surat, Cutch, and Bombay. These are chiefly of the Vaisya caste, along with many Parsees. It was the scene of some violent conflicts during the Mahometan dynasty of Mysore.

Province of Malabar.

At the river Chandraghiri, bounding Canara on the south, the Hindoo region of Malabar commences, and extends to Cape Comorin. The British province of Malabar forms only part of this region, the remainder consisting of Cochin and Travancore. The British province extends about 200 miles along the coast. This province contains few villages or towns, except on the sea-coast, each man living distinct on his estate or farm; the house being within the garden, which is surrounded by a high bank and deep valley, like a rampart and ditch. Black pepper is the chief article of export. Almost the whole land is private property. The approved history of this country is, that it was created, or raised from the bottom of the sea, for the use of the Brahmins! There are established rules of great antiquity, for the transfer, lease, and mortgage of estates. The Mahometans or Moplays, being persons of industry and business, acquire great advantages over the idle and dissolute Nairs, so that they often make purchases or obtain mortgages of the estates of the latter.

Local division of castes.

The principal division of the Hindoo castes here, is into I. Namburies or Brahmins; II. Nairs of various classes; III. Tiars, the free cultivators of the soil; IV. Malears, musicians and conjurers, also freemen; and V. The Poliars, or bondmen, attached to the soil. The distance of intercourse by which the different castes are separated, is laid down with great precision.

I. A Nair must not touch a Brahmin; a Tiar must keep at the distance of thirty-six yards; and a Poliar ninety-six steps.

II. A Tiar must not come within twelve steps of a Nair;

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a Malear within three or four; or a Poliar within ninety-six. III. a Malear must not touch a Tiar. IV. A Poliar must not come near even to a Malear or to any other caste. If he wishes to speak to any one of them, he must stand at the prescribed distance, and call aloud. When any unfortunate violation of these rules occurs, the person polluted by it purifies himself by bathing and reading the sacred books, according to rules which vary with the degree of contamination incurred. There is a still more loathed race of outcasts in Malabar, called Niadis, who wander in small companies, and, when they see a passenger, set up a howl which warns him not to come too near, and proclaims the necessities of the wretched individual. The charitably disposed lay down what they mean to bestow, and go away; and then the Niadis approach and pick it up. They eat tortoises, and sometimes alligators.

The Niadis.

Singularities of the Nairs.

The most remarkable of the castes in Malabar is that of the Nairs, who are subdivided into eleven gradations. They are the Sudra, or military caste, and, though not all following the military profession, were formerly all liable to be called on for military duty by the Rajas. At present they work at various handicraft occupations; they are under the direction of the Brahmins; they are fond of appearing in arms, and often practise assassination; their arrogance towards the inferior castes was formerly of the harshest kind. A Nair was expected to cut down any Tiar, or Mucua, (fisherman) who presumed to touch his person, or any Poliar, or Pariar, who did not turn out of his road as he passed. The Nairs, in common with all the Malabar Hindoos, are as remarkable for thoughtless profusion as the people in other parts of India for extreme parsimony. But the most singular characteristic of this race is to be found in the terms of intercourse observed by the two sexes. They marry before the age of ten, but the husband never cohabits with his wife; she lives with her mother or her brother, and is at liberty to cohabit with any other man who is of equal or higher rank. Hence no man knows his

own father; his brothers and sisters are only known by their common relationship to one mother; and when a man dies, his property descends, not to children supposed to be his own, but to those of his mother or his sister. The mother manages the house, and at her death the eldest sister assumes the direction.

Before the time of Hyder, this country was governed by numerous chiefs or landed proprietors, whose jurisdiction continually varied in extent, according to the circumstances of succession. The Moplays, along the sea-coast, are descendants of Arabians, and extremely fanatical in their religion. The mutual antipathy which subsists between them and the Hindoos is very great.

Native Christians of St. Thomas.

The Christian religion was early introduced into Malabar, and the professors of that religion seem to be entitled to be considered as a distinct primitive church. They reject the supremacy of the pope, the mystery of transubstantiation, and the adoration of relics and images. When Vasco de Gama arrived at Cochin in 1603, he found a political community professing the Christian faith, with a king at their head. But, finding that they differed from the church of Rome, the Portuguese exerted themselves to convert them, both by persuasion and force. Hence there are many Roman Catholics here who have their places of worship. The original church uses Syriac copies of the sacred books, and the same language is retained in those used by the proselyted churches. The members of the former are sometimes called Nestorians, sometimes the Christians of St. Thomas. They trace their origin to the apostle of this name, who, according to them, visited their country; but it is more probable that the founder of their church was another Thomas, who landed on this coast in the fifth century. They acknowledge the patriarch of Antioch as their early head. They are called sometimes the Syrian Christians. They highly value the Syriac language as the sacred dialect in which Christ and his disciples spoke; that language is not understood by the people, and therefore extemporaneous explanations of the Scriptures are given by

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the clergy. The Syriac is, in fact, used among them as the Latin Vulgate is in the church of Rome. Among the mountainous parts of Travancore, Dr. Claudius Buchanan found many simple and amiable communities of these worshippers; and he put them on a plan of having the Scriptures translated into the Malabaric, the vernacular language of the country. Those who have been converted to the church of Rome are chiefly on the sea-coast. After yielding to the doctrines and practices of the subjects of the pope and the inquisition, they made a firm stand when required to give up the Syriac as the sacred language appropriated to divine service, and to adopt the Latin in its stead; and the missionaries were, by their obstinacy, necessitated so far to relax in this point as to allow them to retain the Syriac. They are distinguished by the appellation of the Syro-Romish Christians. The total number of Christians on the Malabar coast is estimated at 200,000, of whom about 90,000 are in the Travancore country. The villages of Malabar are the neatest in India; the houses are contiguous, in a straight line, built of mud of an excellent quality, well smoothed and painted; but being thatched with palm leaves, to prevent the mud from being washed away, they are extremely combustible. The higher ranks use little clothing, but are remarkably cleanly in their persons; so that cutaneous disorders are only known among slaves and the lowest castes. The beauty and elegant dress of the Brahmin women give some lustre to the general aspect of society. Common fowls were not known among the original natives, but since they have been introduced by Europeans, they are to be had in abundance.

Syro-Romish Christians.

Hyder, when he took this province in 1761, found in it large quantities of treasure, which had been accumulated by the inhabitants for ages. He drove out all the Rajas except those who instantly submitted to him. He proceeded gradually to settle them after frequent outbreakings. Tippoo, however, in 1788, firmly established his sway, and enforced his religion by an overwhelming army, circumcising all those whom

Subjugation to Hyder, and Tippoo.

he could lay hold of. The British, on subduing Tippoo, restored the expelled Rajas, and reinstated them in their possessions; but, in three successive settlements, these failed to fulfil their engagements; they maintained a rule over the people of the most oppressive description, and the country was distracted by insurrections. The Rajas were, for these reasons, ultimately deprived of all authority, and allowed a fifth part of the revenue to support their rank. The refractory among them have been subdued by military force, and local arrangements have been made by which tranquillity is now restored. The population in 1800 was reckoned 600,000, but must be considerably greater. More than one-third are Mahometans.

Tellicherry. The sea-port town of Tellicherry, in lat. 11° 45′, was long the chief English settlement on this coast, but has declined since the Company's commerce was removed to Mahé. The richest natives still reside here, and the inhabitants are far more civilized than in the rest of the province. It contains an arsenal, and is a great mart for pepper and cardamom, sandal and teak wood, cotton stuffs, and other Malabaric goods.

Mahé. Mahé is the principal French settlement on this coast. It is finely situated on high ground, at the mouth of a river; the situation being much better than that of Tellicherry. The French have in general been guided by more enlarged and judicious views in the selection of their stations than the English, who seem to have been attracted solely by the temporary resort of commerce.

Calicut. The city of Calicut, in lat. 11° 15′, is a place of great trade. It has been the scene of some sanguinary contests, in which the Portuguese in the first instance, and afterwards Tippoo and the English were concerned. It contains 5000 houses. The Raja of the Calicut district, or the Tamuri Rajah, called the Zamorin by Europeans, is one of the most respected native chiefs. The males of the family are called Tamburans, and the females Tamburettis. It would be reckoned scandalous for the ladies to have

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any intercourse with their husbands. The Namburi Brahmins are generally the fathers of their children. The oldest man of the family by the female line is the Tamuri Raja, and he pretends to be higher than the Brahmins, and inferior only to the gods; but these pretensions are not acquiesced in by the Brahmins. At present he has a revenue, but no authority. The town of Paniany, thirty-six miles south from the preceding, is inhabited chiefly by Moplays, or Mahometan descendants of Arabs, who settled here at an early period of the Mahometan religion. It is the residence of their Tangul, or chief priest, and contains forty mosques. They use a peculiar written character, totally different from the Arabic, that language being known to very few among them except the priests. They had no government, but were completely subject to the Hindoo chiefs, till Tippoo encouraged them to make the most wanton attacks on the Hindoos, and thus transformed them into a set of lawless, blood-thirsty ruffians, who have with difficulty been in any degree reformed by the subsequent rule of the British. The Tangul is still their spiritual head, who names the Imâm of the mosque, generally giving the appointment to the sister's son, or heir, of the preceding functionary. This shows, even among that race, a tendency to comply with the native customs of the country.

Account of the Moplays.

Cochin.

To the south of the British Malabar lies the small principality of Cochin, so named from a word signifying "a morass." It contains a considerable variety of valuable forest trees, which contribute greatly to the beauty of the scenery, and the picturesque appearance of the dwellings of the inhabitants.

Christians.

In this province are many Christian villages, inhabited chiefly by the Christians of St. Thomas, which are generally well built and cleanly. A great number of Jews live about Cochin, of whom there are two classes, distinguished by the appellation of white Jews and black Jews. The white Jews are considered as later emigrants than the black,

White and black Jews.

and of purer blood, the black being partly descendants of Hindoo proselytes, and partly of a mixed breed. They have a synagogue in the town of Cochin; but the greater part of them live in the interior. Trittoor, Paroor, Chenotta and Maleh, are the chief settlements of the black Jews. The white Jews keep a historical record of their emigration, which they date as far back as the building of the second temple. Their first settlement was at Cranganor, where they continued a thousand years, and during that time were joined by many others who had heard of their prosperity; but at last, in consequence of intestine discord, a Hindoo prince, who was called to the assistance of one of the parties, destroyed many of them, and dispersed the remainder, a catastrophe compared to the sufferings of the Jews at Jerusalem as related by Josephus. They show a brass plate, on which an ancient grant of land and certain privileges from an Indian king, is inscribed in the Malabaric character, and in so old a hand as to be scarcely intelligible. The Rev. Dr. C. Buchanan caused a facsimile of this plate to be engraved at Cochin, which is now deposited in the library of the university of Cambridge [i]. Among the black Jews the same zealous inquirer found several Hebrew books, partly printed and partly manuscript. Some of the tombs in their burial grounds are handsomely constructed. In building their houses it is a rule to leave a part unfinished, as an emblem of the desolation of Jerusalem, and to write on it words signifying "in memory of the desolation [k]."

Political condition of Cochin.

The Raja of Cochin maintained his independence to a later period than most of the other Hindoo chiefs. Tippoo was the first who compelled him to pay tribute, which he now does to the English. Having in 1809 made an attack on the latter, supposed to be instigated by a hostile European power, he was reduced to a more dependent condition, and his tribute augmented.

[i] Buchanan's Christian Researches in Asia, 3d edition p. 207—210.

[k] זכר לכורכן

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City of Cochin.

The city of Cochin was the station of the first Portuguese fortress in India, begun in 1503. The Dutch took it in 1663. Under them Cochin was a place of great commerce. This city contains a great many protestants, in consequence of colonies planted, and conversions made, by the Dutch. It is on the sea coast, in lat. 9° 57′. It is still a place of great trade in pepper, cardamoms, precious stones, teak wood, and other articles of export. Several vessels are built at it. The white and black Jews, Moors, and Parsees, have their own bazars. The town has a handsome appearance, and contains within it large plantations of cocoa trees, and other palms, which diffuse a delicious fragrance.

Cranganor.

Cranganor, sixteen miles north from Cochin, is the place where the apostle Thomas is said to have landed from Aden in Arabia. Both the town and the Portuguese fort are now in ruins. It is still the seat of an Archbishop, under whom are forty-five churches.

Province of Travancore.

The western coast from Cochin to Cape Comorin is occupied by the province of Travancore, which lies between the eighth and tenth degrees of north latitude. At these latitudes there is only one chain of the Ghauts, the western, and no elevated table land; the eastern Ghauts having terminated more to the north. This province, comprehending the continuation of the western Ghaut chain, is bounded on the east by the Carnatic. Agriculture is conducted here

Its produce.

on principles somewhat different from what it is in the Carnatic. No tanks are required for irrigation; the seasons always affording sufficient moisture for the cultivation of rice, which is called the wet cultivation, and is of considerable extent in this province. The principal dry cultivation is that of pepper, betel nut, and cocoa nuts. Inland trade is cruelly restricted by the exaction of duties at every stage of the transit of goods, passes being unknown, except for articles already farmed. There are taxes on Christian festivals, on nets and fishermen, and a capitation tax on all males from sixteen to twenty, except

Nairs, Moplays, and artificers. The number subjected to this tax is 250,000.—The British have had some obstacles to encounter in fixing the administration of justice in this province. The Hindoo law is the basis of procedure; but owing to the number of Christians and Mussulmans, that law will not universally apply. It makes the killing of a cow a capital crime. It sanctions the trial by ordeal, and other absurd practices. In one case, property which had been awarded by a judge to one of the litigants in consequence of his oath, was referred to an assembly of pundits by the Resident, before whom the cause had been brought by appeal; that property was found by the pundits to be due to the opposite party, because the man's oath had been rendered null by the death of a cow in his house within forty days! The trial by ordeal has even found its way among the Jews. One of them complained to the Resident that he had been obliged by a court of justice to put his hand in boiling oil, and, because he could not sustain it, lost both his cause and the use of his hand.—The British functionaries are generally applied to by the Raja, or by the Ranny or queen, the leading Tamburetti, to conduct the national affairs, on account of the great partiality and turbulence which so commonly attend the administration of native Dewans and other ministers.—It is among the hills of Travancore that the Syrian Christians are most completely naturalized. Hindoo temples are so rare, and plain Christian churches so abundant, that a European traveller would scarcely believe himself to be in India.—The customs with regard to the intercourse of the sexes, which we have already noticed under the head of Malabar in speaking of the Nairs, operate in Travancore to their full extent, and regulate the succession to the throne, and to property. The husbands of the Tamburettis, or princesses, have no influence in the state, and are sent back to their villages on the death of the Tamburettis to whom they have been married. This perverted system of domestic relations, together with

Civil and Political state.

Laws of succession.

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the oppressive character of the government, has generated a peculiar turpitude of character in this country, shewing itself in the prevalence of an uncommon degree of idleness, treachery, and turbulence. The male offspring of the Tamburettis are the only legal heirs to the throne; but certain forms are indispensable in order to become Tamburettis. In remote times the Tamburettis themselves were the sovereigns. But about the year 1740 the power was transferred from the princesses to their sons. Superstitious scruples, as well as political feelings, often contribute to perplex the royal succession, and though not now attended with actual turbulence, prove a source of difficulty which the British power always waits to see removed before it gives its sanction to the succession.

Travancore, the ancient capital, is twenty-seven miles N.N.W. from Cape Comorin. The present capital is Trivanderam, in lat. 8° 29′, fifty-two miles from Cape Comorin. It is the usual residence of the Travancore Rajas. The castle is extremely ill built. The royal palace is large and well built, in the European taste, containing a great variety of paintings, clocks, and other European ornaments. But the Raja prefers living in a house of a more humble appearance, where he is surrounded with Brahmins. The town is populous, and in 1785 it had a garrison of 10,000 Sepoys disciplined in the European manner, 1000 Nairs, and 400 Patan cavalry. Now, however, the force at the Raja's disposal must be much less considerable. There is a small sea port, seventy-eight miles from Cape Comorin, called Anjengo, near to which is Attinga (named in most maps Attancal) where the Tamburettis principally reside.

Trivanderam.

The palace.

Attinga.

Cape Comorin, the terminating point of the Indian continent, is situated just at the boundary between Travancore and the Carnatic, and come into view in our account of that province.

BOOK XLIX.

INDOSTAN CONTINUED.

Island of Ceylon, the Laccadives, and the Maldives.

LEAVING now the continent of British India, we shall give a description of some islands which form natural appendages to that country. The most conspicuous is the large and rich island of Ceylon; in which we have been told that the stones are rubies and sapphires, that amomum scents the marshes, and cinnamon the forests, and that the most common plants furnish precious perfumes. Elephants of the most handsome and valuable kind run here in flocks as the wild boars do in the forests of Europe, while the brilliant peacock and the bird of Paradise occupy the place of our rooks and our swallows[a]. Island of Ceylon.

This island has received different names at different periods with different authors. Cosmas calls it Sielen Diva, or the island Sielen, from which we have in European languages Selan and Ceylon. But, as Ammianus Marcellinus calls the inhabitants Serandives, and as the Arabic name *Serandib* is a corruption of Selan Div, the latter must be traced to a very ancient period, and probably is contained in the *Simundu*, (which should be read *Silundu*) of Ptolemy[a]. This term indeed has the syllables Its name.

[a] Linnæus, Musæum Ceylanicum, Præfat.

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Palai preceding it; but these are merely the Greek adverb for "old," and should not be confounded with the name itself. Another Indian name Salabha, or "the rich island," may be recognised in the *Salikê* of the same geographer. But the more ancient Sanscrit name, Langa, and that which is now most used among the natives and their neighbours, Singala, were unknown to our ancient authors. Singala signifies the country of "lions." Some think that Sinhal-Dwipa, (or the "lion island,") is the origin of the term Sielendiba of Cosmas. It was called also *Taprobrane* by the older writers, a name unknown before the time of Alexander, and of uncertain application. Tapobon is a name which it receives in Sanscrit.

Situation, size, &c.

This island is situated between the parallel of 5° 56′, and 9° 46′ N. latitude, and between 76° 36′, and 81° 58′ E. longitude. Part of its length lies due east from the coast of Coromandel, at a distance of thirty miles. Its form is ovate; its northern extremity being the most pointed, with the island of Jaffnapatam, of a very irregular form, appended to it. It is almost two-thirds of the size of Ireland, containing a surface of 20,770 square miles. The sea-coast is low and flat, and encircled with a broad border of cocoa-nut trees, surrounded by rocks and shoals. The interior is filled with mountains, which are seen from the ocean rising in successive ranges; many of them beautiful and verdant, others huge, rocky, and peaked. The highest and most conspicuous mountain is that of Adam's peak.

Climate.

In this country winter is unknown; the perennial summer is only diversified by the difference of a few degrees of temperature.

Monsoons.

Over most of the island, and particularly the maritime provinces, the wind blows during a certain period of the year from the south-west, and a certain period from the north-east, the same monsoons which, under local variations, prevail over India; the south-west monsoon blows while the sun is north of the line, the temperature of the

continuent being then higher than that of the ocean. This continues from the end of April to the beginning of November. The period of the other monsoon is when the sun is to the south of the line, when the ocean, taken along with the southern part of Africa, is of a higher temperature than the Indian continent. The difference of temperature being less than in the first period, the duration of this monsoon is shorter than the other, beginning in November, and ending in March. The south-west wind is felt generally over the island, but the north-east wind does not, during half its duration, reach across the mountains to Columbo on the west coast. The proportion of rain which falls is great, most particularly among the mountains, and on those parts of the coast which are most subjected to the influence of the monsoon. The rains are periodical and extremely heavy, two or three inches often falling in the course of a day. At the northern extremity, and along the east coast, the rainy season begins in November, lasting about two months with great violence; the rest of the year is dry, and rarely visited by scanty showers. On the west coast, most rain falls about the setting in of the south-west monsoon, but it is not so heavy nor so constant here as on the opposite side; the dry season, too, is more liable to be interrupted by showers. Hence the west coast is seldom parched, and exhibits at all times the most inviting aspect to strangers. The seasons among the mountains participate more of those of the opposite coasts in different places, in proportion to their local situation and aspect. Rains are frequent in the interior, hence the country is well watered. The heat varies in different places. The west coast is remarkable for equality of temperature, exceeding in this respect any other part of the world, except a few small islands at a great distance from land, such as St. Helena and Ascension island. The mean temperature is about 78°, and the atmosphere is exceedingly moist. The east coast, about Trincomalee, is remarkable for intense heats, the mean temperature of the hot months being 82.8. Among the mountains, the temperature is

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generally cooler than might be expected, and the vicissitudes are greater. The mean annual temperature of Kandy is about 73. 5 [b]. Ceylon suffers much less from violent storms and hurricanes than islands in general, especially between the tropics. Instances of this kind, however, have occurred. In 1819, at the foot of the mountains in the south-eastern part of the island, there was a violent thunder shower, with wind and hail, which unroofed the houses in an instant, tore up many trees, and broke others across which were fourteen feet in circumference [c]. The most healthy parts of the island are the south-west coast, and the loftier grounds of the interior situations, which coincide in being well ventilated, and refreshed with frequent showers. The most unhealthy regions are the wooded parts between the mountains and the sea, in all directions except to the south-west. These parts resemble the Terriani in the north of Indostan. The lower mountainous districts, and the northern and the eastern shores, hold in this particular an intermediate character. Trincomalee is never sickly while subjected to the north-east wind, coming directly from the sea; but it changes for the worse during the south-west winds, which blow over an extent of a low unwholesome territory. The diseases are in general those which prevail in hot climates. Elephantiasis, and various cutaneous affections, are very common among the natives. Dysentery is more frequent than in India, and is formidable from its fatality, and the rapidity of its course. Palsy and insanity are frequent both among the natives and among Europeans.

Salubrity.

The principal river is the Mahawellé-ganga, which, winding extensively among the highest of the mountains of the interior, and supplied with many tributaries, receives all the water which falls on that region, and empties itself on the east coast, between Trincomalee and Batticaloe. It is

Rivers.

[b] Dr. John Davy's Account of the Interior of Ceylon, 1821, p. 68.

[c] Ibid. p. 73.

only partially navigable. Shallows, rocks, and rapids interrupt the navigable communication between its higher parts and the sea. The Kalané-ganga, which runs from Adam's Peak in a westerly direction, falling into the sea at Columbo, though of much smaller dimensions, is more important, on account of its being navigable for boats for three-fourths of its course. Hence it is much used for inland carriage, and is likely to be more so in future. Perhaps by an artificial communication with the navigable part of the Mahawellé-ganga, the general internal communications may be materially facilitated [d].

Minerals.

The whole of this island consists of what mineralogists call primitive rock, chiefly granite and gneiss, with some quartz rock in large veins, hornblende, and dolomite rock, which last is both in veins and imbedded. Limestone is confined to the province of Jaffnapatam, and is of the shell kind, and mixed with coral rock. Grey and blackish sandstone is of general occurrence along the shore. This island is remarkable for its richness in gems, and for the variety of its minerals. The primitive rock contains ores of iron and manganese, the former of which is worked by the natives, the species being those called red hematite and bog ore. Rock crystal, amethyst, prase, and cat's-eye, the latter particularly fine, topaz, schorl, common garnet, and the variety of corundum called the cinnamon stone, are also found. This last is an interesting mineral. Ceylon is richer in zircon than any other part of the world. It has long been celebrated for rubies of different species. The country contains several nitre caves.

Vegetables.

The vegetable productions of Ceylon are valuable. The cocoa-nut holds the first rank for utility, from its agreeable fruit, the oil which it yields, the toddy produced from it, and its leaves universally, employed for the walls and roofs of the dwellings. The *borassus flabelliformis*, or palmyra, is also valuable, its leaves being used for writing on all over India, and its wood durable, and not liable to the devastations of the white ants. In the north part of the island

[d] Dr. Davy.

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the sweet fruit of this tree forms a leading article of food among the poorer inhabitants. The sago tree, the large talipot palm, the leaves of which serve for umbrellas; two species of bread fruit, the *Artocarpus integrifolia* and *incisa*, the singular *ficus religiosa*, or banyan tree, cashew, tamarind, and areca nut trees, yield their respective fruits. There are two annual crops of oranges, and for two months in each season that fruit is to be obtained in a good state for eating. They are of a delicious flavour, but different from those to which we are accustomed, their colour, when ripe, being green instead of yellow. Guavas, papaw, pomegranate, bamboo, sugar cane, pepper, tobacco, and various articles of export, grow here. Very little grain is cultivated besides rice, of which they have four kinds. There is not a sufficiency, however, for the inhabitants, so that a considerable importation of this article is rendered necessary.

Cinnamon.

Of all the vegetable productions of the island that for which it is most celebrated is its cinnamon, the bark of the *Laurus cinnamomum*, called by the natives coorundoo. On this the riches of the island in a great measure depend; therefore the cultivation of the trees, and the gathering of the bark, are objects of careful attention. In April, soon after the fruit is ripe, the business of decortication begins. May and June are reckoned the most favourable months, the three following not so good, but November and December are favourable, and are called the little harvest. The labourer first selects a tree which appears to him ripe, then he ascertains it by striking his hatchet obliquely into a branch; if, on drawing it out, the bark separates from the wood, the cinnamon has attained maturity; if not, it must remain. He cuts down a number of shoots, from three to five feet long, and three-fourths of an inch in diameter, carries his load to a hut or shed, and, with the assistance of a companion, strips off and cleans the bark. The cinnamon tree flourishes only in one small district of the island, being confined to the south-west angle, from Negumbo to Matura. There is none on the western side beyond Chilau, nor on the eastern

side beyond Tengalle. Within this range the nature of the soil, and the warmth, moisture, and steadiness of the climate, contribute to cherish it. The largest plantation is near Columbo, and is about twelve miles in circumference. In some inland places it grows without cultivation, but of inferior quality. The cultivation of cinnamon was the result of the experimental enterprise of the Dutch governor Falk, who presided in Ceylon for thirty years before its conquest by the English. He met with great opposition from the prejudices and imagined interests of the natives, some of whom slily attempted to thwart his endeavours by sprinkling the plants in the evening with hot water. His exertions were thus a little retarded, but ultimately succeeded. The quantity of cinnamon annually sent to Britain amounts to 368,000 lbs. for which the East India Company pays to government (as this island is immediately subject to the king) £60,000 Sterling, and they carry it home at their own expense[e]. A great quantity is used by the slaves in the South American mines as a preservative against noxious exhalations, and it is dispersed through the different countries of the east. The wood of the tree has no smell, and is chiefly used as fuel.

Animals.

All the larger animals of Ceylon are common to it with continental India; subject to accidental modifications in the qualities of the respective breeds. Some of the continental species are not found in the island. The elephant stands at the head of the class of its quadrupeds. Of this animal there are two varieties,—one with very long teeth, called *allcia*, and another, which has either very short teeth, or none at all; these are called *aëia*[f]. Elephants are caught in Ceylon, chiefly by such snares as have been described in Book XLVI.[g] Of these there is one at Kotawy in this island, which requires 300 men to guard it when elephants are caught. On the first day of a hunt.

Elephants.

[e] Cordiner's Description of Ceylon, vol. I. p. 16, (published in 1807.)

[f] Asiat. Register, 1800. Miscell. Tracts, p. 3.

[g] See p. 11 of this volume.

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Mr. Cordiner mentions that they had caught twenty, which he reckoned a small number; but he thought that the operation might be rendered much more speedy by additional expedients[h]. On another day sixty were secured. When caught, an elephant is tamed in the course of eight days. They are conveyed to Jaffnapatam, where they are sold by auction before they are transported to the continent. The elephants of Ceylon are generally from ten to eleven feet in height. The feet, and some other parts of the flesh of this animal, are very palatable. The Kandians are in the habit of catching them sometimes by laying nooses for their feet, sometimes by chasing them on tame elephants, throwing ropes round the neck and feet of the wild animal, and then beating him into subjection. The uses to which this noble animal is applied in Ceylon are, as elsewhere, innumerable. Besides carrying all sorts of burdens in peace and war, they are employed in thinning plantations, or clearing away forests, which they do by pulling up the trees with their trunks, with as great facility as a man pulls up stocks of cabbage. The neighbourhood of Matura, in the southern part of the island, is the place where those are chiefly caught that are intended for exportation. The hunts take place once in three or four years. The Indian buffalo is also found in a wild state in Ceylon; and when tamed, employed in labour. It is a different animal from the buffalo of the south of Europe and Egypt; being inferior in size and stature even to the English ox, and the horns bending back. They shew their community of nature with the large buffaloes by having the same instinct to roll in mud, and remain immersed in water during the heat of the day. In the wild state they are fierce, and rather dangerous to meet in travelling. Common oxen of various colours, but mostly black, with a hump on the shoulders, are reared in considerable numbers, and employed in labour. Both these and buffaloes are liable to very destructive epidemics. Hogs are plenti-

Buffaloes, and other quadrupeds.

[h] See Cordiner's Account of Ceylon, vol. I. p. 213—217, where an animated account of an elephant hunt is given, accompanied by a plate of the snare.

ful, and much eaten by the Dutch and Portuguese. Sheep and goats are not native here, and few of them are reared, though they thrive very well, especially about Jaffnapatam. The horse is not a native of Ceylon, and the only ones in the island are a few which have been imported for the pleasure of the European inhabitants. Some have been bred at Jaffnapatam, and the small island of Delft. They were first introduced there by the Portuguese, who called the islands *Ilhas de Cavales*. The woods abound with deer, of which a beautiful small species, not larger than a hare, is very common. It is called the moose deer, and nearly corresponds with the *Cervus guinensis* of Linnæus. The royal tiger is not found in Ceylon; but a smaller species, called *Cheta*, spotted like the leopard, is numerous. Monkeys swarm as they do in Indostan, and among others the white-bearded and the black-bearded species. The musk animal called by naturalists *Moschus memana*, and the jackal, are among the quadrupeds which people the island. Its birds form a more numerous class. Domestic fowls, ducks, and geese, are plentiful at the European settlements. The jungle fowl, which resembles the pheasant, is in great abundance. Green pigeons of beautiful plumage, and forming a delicacy for the table; snipes, green parroquets in considerable variety, peacocks, fly-catchers, tailor-birds, kites, vultures, crows, and numerous others, either peculiar to the tropical regions, or more or less allied to species familiar in Europe, abound. Reptiles of various sizes, from the most minute lizard to the largest alligator, are in great variety, and among others the house-lizard, which is the largest animal that can, like a fly, walk in an inverted situation, a mechanism accomplished by a muscular power in the webs of the feet, by means of which it can cling to any surface by taking advantage of the atmospheric pressure, like a leech fixing on the skin, or a child sucking the mother's nipple. When a lamp is hung on a house wall, it is soon surrounded with lizards in quest of flies. Snakes of different sizes and species,

Birds.

Reptiles.

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abound here as in Indostan; and in this island Dr. Davy has lately made some interesting experiments on the operation of their respective poisons [i]. Like all warm countries of luxuriant vegetation, it swarms with insects in every direction. That valuable product of this class of the animal creation, honey, is abundant in Ceylon, and is commonly used for seasoning and preserving meat, as salt is used in other countries [k]. There are many kinds of ants; the most remarkable are the destructive white ant, the great red ant, which builds its nest on trees by connecting together a number of leaves with a glutinous cement [l]; the common red ant, which abounds in houses, and several others, red and black. A curious advantage is taken of the combative instincts of the ants, all the species of which are enemies to one another, so that one exclusively occupies any particular haunt. The white ant, being the smallest, is destroyed by the red ant. Therefore it is a common practice to strew sugar on the floors of houses to attract the larger species, and thus procure the extinction of the white ant. The grasshoppers are extremely curious; some resembling pieces of straw awkwardly joined together; others the branches of trees; while the wings of others bear a perfect resemblance to the leaves of trees. There are some very large spiders; one of them, which has legs four inches long, and the body covered with hair, is said to be poisonous in its bite, but fortunately it is rare.—One of the most troublesome animals of Ceylon is a small leech, which, if not peculiar to this island, has no where else attracted so much attention, though it is perhaps the same animal which is mentioned by Mr. Marsden as found in Sumatra. It is confined to the moist parts of the island, which are of moderate elevation, and visited by frequent showers. In dry weather it retires into the shade of bushes and jungle, but during

Insects.

Ceylon leech.

[i] Dr. Davy's Account of the Interior of Ceylon, p. 89, 90.

[k] Texeira, Hist. Persic. B. I. chap. 35.

[l] Valentyn's Description of Ceylon, in Dutch, p. 54.

rain, it abounds over every part of the surface, and fastens on the legs and feet of travellers in such enormous numbers, and with such perseverance, that it is impossible to keep them off. The only preventive is to have the limbs well covered with boots and trowsers. Smearing them with oil, especially castor oil, or the juice of acrid plants, such as tobacco, answers tolerably well, as long as it is not removed by the friction and moisture in travelling; but in general it is not a permanent defence. This leech is smaller than the medicinal species, and some varieties of it are extremely minute. Its colour is brown, and its texture to a considerable degree transparent. It tapers from a broad flat tail to a fine pointed mouth, and can stretch itself out as fine as a thread, so as to pass through very small openings. The bites, if properly attended to, are easily healed, but if neglected they occasion a great loss of blood, and degenerate into tedious ulcers; hence some have pronounced this animal to be the cause of more deaths than any other on the island [m].—The lakes and rivers abound with fish, but generally of a small size. The common fishes of the Indian Ocean are found on the shores. Many cowries are got here, which pass as a circulating medium of low value in petty traffic through the whole of India.

Fish.

The marine animal most deserving of our notice is the oyster which yields the pearl, and which is taken for the purpose of procuring that valuable article. One of the most celebrated and productive pearl fisheries is on the west coast of Ceylon, off the Bay of Condatchy, about twelve miles south from the island of Manaar. This bay is the great rendezvous for the boats employed, and all the persons concerned in it. This part of the country is sandy, and scarcely inhabited at all excepting on these occasions. But during the pearl fishery it branches out into a populous town, with many streets a mile long. The most active persons in erecting the huts are the Mahometan

Pearl Fishery.

[m] Dr. Davy's Account, &c, p. 102. 105.

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natives of the island. None of the Singalese are divers, which some ascribe to the timidity of their character; but many of them resort to the place as to a fair, particularly fishermen to supply the multitude with fish. About the end of October, in the year preceding a pearl fishery, during a short interval of fine weather, an examination of the banks takes place, a few oysters being taken for a specimen. The banks extend over a space thirty miles long, and twenty-four broad, and are fourteen in number. The largest bed is ten miles long and two in breadth. When the fishery is determined on, advertisements are circulated for all concerned to repair to the place on the 20th of the succeeding February, when the boats come from Jaffna, Ramisseram, Nagore, Tutakoreen, Travancore, Kilkerry, and other parts on the coast of Coromandel. The banks are about fifteen miles, (or three hours sailing,) from the shore of Condatchy. The pearl oysters are all of the same species, but vary in their qualities according to the nature of the ground to which they are attached, and the appearance of the numerous and often large zoophytes which adhere to the outsides of their shells. Their number on the banks varies considerably, being sometimes washed away by the current of the tide, and sometimes buried in the sand deposited from the water. The pearls are in the fleshy part of the oyster, near one of the angles, at the hinge. Each generally contains several pearls. The fishery is rented to one individual for a stipulated sum, two-thirds of which are paid in advance. In 1804, the renter brought with him a large family, with thirteen palanquins, to each of which thirteen well-dressed bearers were attached. He is allowed 150 boats fishing for thirty days. The boatmen and their attendants, to the number of 6000, are roused a little before midnight with immense bustle, and, after their ablutions and incantations, set sail. About half past six in the morning the diving begins. A kind of open scaffolding is projected from each side of the boat, from which the diving tackle is suspended; consisting

Pearl Fishery.

of three stones fifty-six pounds in weight on one side, and two on the other. The diving stone hangs by a rope and slip knot, descending a little way into the water. In the rope just above the stone, there is also a strong loop, to receive, like a stirrup, the foot of the diver. The latter puts one foot in the loop, and the other in a basket formed of a hoop and net-work. When duly prepared, he grasps his nostrils with one hand, and with the other gives a sudden pull to the running knot, and instantly descends; both the rope of the stone and that of the basket follow him. The moment he reaches the bottom he disengages his foot from the stone, which is immediately drawn up, to be ready for the next diver. The diver at the bottom throws himself on his face, and collects every thing he can lay hold of into the basket. When ready to ascend, he gives a jerk to the basket-rope, and is speedily hauled up by the persons in the boat; using in the mean time his own exertions in working up by the rope, he arrives at the surface a considerable time before the basket. He swims about, or remains at rest, laying hold of an oar or rope, till his turn comes to descend again. Some of the divers perform the dip in one minute; a minute and a half, or two minutes, are assigned as the utmost that any one remains under water. The basket is often so heavy as to require more than one man to haul it up. The shark-charmers form an indispensable part of the establishment. All these impostors belong to one family. The natives will not descend without knowing that one of them is present in the fleet. Two are constantly employed, one in the head pilot's boat, and another performing ceremonies on shore. Sharks are often seen from the boats, and by the divers while in the water, but an accident rarely occurs. This prejudice operates as a protection to the oyster banks from plunder at other times.

Where the bed is rich, a diver often puts upwards of 150 oysters into his basket at one dip; when they are thinly scattered sometimes no more than five. After diving, a small quantity of blood usually issues from the nose and

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ears, which is considered as a favourable symptom, and they perform the operation with greater comfort after the bleeding has commenced. They seem to enjoy the labour as a pleasant pastime, and never complain of fatigue unless the banks are poor in oysters. Two divers are attached to each stone, and go down alternately. The period allotted for this operation continues from five to six hours. About one or two o'clock, at the setting in of the sea breeze, on a signal given by the head pilot, the fleet sets sail for the shore, and arrives about four or five, amidst an immense concourse of people. They never fish on Sundays, all the pilots, and many divers, being Romish Christians, and the day of rest is also convenient for the Hindoos. Each diver has a fourth part of the oysters which he brings up, from which, however, he has various claims to satisfy. He sells his share on the spot to the numerous adventurers who resort to the place. In a successful fishery, each man carries home, at the end of the season, forty or fifty pagodas. A boat has been known to land in one day 33,000 oysters, and in another not more than 300. Those belonging to the renter are piled up in inclosures formed by palisades, and the opening of them does not commence till the fishery is considerably advanced; adventurers on a small scale open them when they buy them, or on the following morning. By some, the oysters are now thrown away, by others they are left to putrefy for the purpose of obtaining with greater certainty the remaining pearls, particularly those of a small size. Two days are generally required for the putrefaction. Many precautions are employed to prevent the secreting of pearls, but not with complete success. When the pearls are separated from the putrid flesh of the oysters, and from the sand along with which the mass has been agitated in boats for that purpose, they are sorted into sizes, by being passed through sieves or saucers full of round holes, those with the largest holes being first used, and the others in succession. The large ones are examined, to see if they contain any blemishes.

They are then drilled with great skill, though by very rude and simple tools. Many of the native merchants, who resort hither from Madras and other parts, are extremely wealthy, and make a great display of opulence in their personal appearance, their retinue, and the quantity of specie which accompanies them. Pearls sell at a higher price in the market of Condatchy during the fishing season, than in any other part of India.—No fishery took place between the years 1768 and 1796. The fishery of the latter year was rented by some natives of Jaffnapatam at L.60,000 Sterling, and they cleared three times that sum by the adventure. In 1797, the net proceeds were L.144,000, and in 1798, L.192,000. That of 1799 only yielded L.30,000. There was a fishery off another part of the coast, Chilaw, in 1803, which yielded L.15,000, and one at Aripo, in 1806, which yielded L.35,000. The fisheries, on the whole, present an amusing scene, from the number of strange characters, deformed persons, jugglers, dancers, tumblers, mechanics, and retailers, who resort to the place from the remotest parts of India.

Population.

This whole island is but thinly inhabited, and this is more the case with the Kandian than with the maritime provinces. In 1814, when a census was taken of the old English possessions, the population amounted to 476,000 souls, and it is believed that the population of the whole island does not exceed 800,000, or about thirty-eight to the square mile.

Different classes.

The inhabitants may be divided into the aboriginal race, and naturalized foreigners. Of the former, who are called Singalese, the inhabitants of the interior exclusively consist. The greater part of the naturalized foreigners are Malabars and Moors. The Malabars are confined chiefly to the northern and eastern parts, while the Moors are scattered over all the maritime districts. The Kandians or Singalese of the interior, and those who are mingled with the other classes in the low country, seem to be of one stock, and

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probably exhibited, three hundred years ago, one uniform character. But now there is a marked distinction in their language, manners, and customs, varying in degree according to their proximity to the European settlements.

Singalese character.

The Kandians, therefore, may be considered as the living examples of the ancient national character, and their state of political subjection will now probably operate a gradual alteration of their character. Their features differ very little from those of the Europeans. Their colour varies from light brown to black; they have almost universally hazel eyes. In a very few the eyes are grey, and the hair red. They are inferior in size to the Europeans, but larger than the lowland Singalese. They are of a stout make, have capacious chests, but are more remarkable for agility and flexibility than for strength of limb; and capable of long continued rather than great exertion. They

Castes.

are divided into castes, but they have not the ridiculous pride of caste which prevails in India. A Singalese will not refuse to eat in company with any respectable European. The leading divisions of their castes are four. The first two are the royal caste, and the Brahminical, which comprehend a very small proportion; the other two are the Wiessa, and the Kshoodra; the former of whom comprehend the cultivators and the shepherds. The Wiessa cultivators are higher than the shepherds. They so far intermarry that a man of the higher rank may take a wife from the other, but a man of the shepherd caste is not allowed to take one from the class of cultivators. To this class belongs the savage race called Weddahs, or Bedas, who inhabit the extensive forests on the south-eastern side of the island. Their appearance is completely wild, and their habits disgusting. Some of them live in villages: another set of them, who have no intercourse with the village Weddahs, being both feared and hated by them, live in huts made of the bark of trees, and eat the flesh of wild animals, with a little maize and roots. They live in pairs, only occa-

sionally collecting in greater numbers. They seem ignorant of all social institutions. It appears that they do not distinguish one another by proper names; and their arts consist of the making of bows and arrows, rude cords from tough vegetable fibres, scratching the ground, and sowing a few seeds. They do not count beyond five. They believe in demons, and offer them homage, without entertaining any notion of a beneficent Deity. Dr. Davy, who witnessed one of their scenes of amusement, which seemed to be their nearest approach to dancing and singing, says that they began by jumping about with their feet together. As they became warm, their hands were employed in patting their bellies: becoming more animated, they clapped their hands as they jumped, and nodded their heads, throwing their long entangled locks from behind, over their faces. They generally acknowledged some Singalese of rank of the adjoining country for their chiefs, and these now and then used to call them together to renew their acquaintance and retain their influence. Dr. Davy mentions as belonging to the Goewansé caste, or that of cultivators, a sort of Singalese Christians, who have been lately discovered in the interior, viz. at Wayacotté in Matelè, and at Galgomua in the seven Korles, about 200 in each village, who worship the Virgin Mary, bow before a crucifix, believe in a purgatory, and baptize, marry, and bury according to the rites of the church of Rome. Their only minister is a man who cannot read, and can only repeat a few prayers. They are said to visit occasionally the temples of Buddha. These must be descendants of the numerous converts made by the Portuguese, while they were masters of the interior. A few years ago, they, for the first time, received from an English clergyman a copy of the New Testament. The fourth, or lowest caste, is called Kshoodra or Sudra, and is subdivided into numerous classes, at the head of whom the Moormen or Mahometans are placed. These are a stout, active, shrewd, enterprising race,

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and monopolize the trade of the country. In appearance and manners they hardly differ from the Singalese. Some have land, and were obliged to appear when required, with their bullocks, to carry the king's rice to the store. There is a class of toddy drawers, but their number is small, as the religion of the country proscribes the use of intoxicating liquors. There is a class of artizans in wood, stone, and metals, who were all obliged to work for the king without compensation, except the carpenters and sculptors, who, when employed, were allowed provisions, because the materials in which they wrought afforded no opportunity for purloining. There is a class of potters, who are numerous, and much employed: for after any feast, at which people of different castes have been entertained, the earthen vessels are all broken, lest any person should undergo the disgrace of afterwards drinking out of vessels which have touched the lips of an inferior. The caste of barbers is little employed, as each man shaves himself, but they have a ridiculous religious ceremony to perform, the shaving of Buddha; the barber merely makes the appropriate motions with a razor, without coming in contact with the image, which is all the time behind a curtain, while a priest holds up a looking glass before it. This duty they perform as a condition for holding the land on which they live. There is a caste of washermen for furnishing white cloths to spread on the ground, line rooms, and cover chairs. The others, of whom as many as twenty-one are enumerated by Dr. Davy, are all in like manner distinguished by the duties they had to perform to royalty, in consideration of the lands which they held.

Outcasts.

Beneath all these, there used to be two sets of outcasts, one of them called Gattaroo, which consisted of persons degraded, and cast out of society by the king, for infamous conduct; the dreaded sentence being, "Let the offender be exempted from paying taxes, and performing services, and be considered a Gattaroo." The other was called Rhodees,

who were descended from persons cast out of society for eating beef after it was prohibited. They are not allowed to live in houses built in the usual way, but only in sheds open on one side. They are obliged to go out of the way, or turn back, when a person of higher caste meets them on the road. Yet the Rhodees are a robust race, and their women particularly handsome. These are less shunned than the men. They ramble about the country, telling fortunes.

The Kandians.

The government of the kingdom of Kandy in the interior, lately abolished, was a regular and somewhat limited monarchy; it was accompanied, in some degree, with that rapacity on the part of the sovereign and his ministers, which characterizes the native governments of the Brahminical nations of Indostan, in which a transference even to the harsh rule of the Mahometans brought with it some advantages to the people. The succession was hereditary, but conditions were imposed on the sovereign on his receiving the regal dignity; and when cogent reasons appeared, the succession was liable to be modified without tumult or bloodshed. The atrocious character of the last king was rather a glaring exception, than an exemplification of the usual character of the sovereigns. It was necessary that the queen should be of the Soore Raja-wansè. Queens were therefore procured from the continent of India, generally from the state of Madura. The marriage ceremony was long, complicated, and extensive, but attended with an extraordinary festivity and relaxation of court discipline. The Kandians have four great annual festivals; one at the new year, which is in April; a second in honour of Vishnu and the gods; a third called the feast of the fortunate hour, celebrated for the prosperity of the kingdom; and the last in honour of the completion of harvest, and called the feast of new rice. The manner in which these festivals are conducted is creditable and decorous, without riot or disturbance, and, as onlookers have testified, without any instances of drunken-

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ness [n]. The public exhibitions are quite free from the indecency and licentiousness which characterize those on the continent of India, having nothing to shock the feelings of the most modest and refined.

Laws. The code of legislation seems to have consisted of a sort of common law very well adapted to the social state of the people. They had not the code of Menu, but only a few of its precepts scattered through their books of religion. When an instance of suicide occurred, or when the perpetrator of a murder could not be discovered, a fine was inflicted on the village, unless the crime had occurred in the jungle, or at a distance from the village. No magistrate or judge, except the king, had the power of passing sentence of death. Neither suicide nor murders seem to be common. An elderly man, when questioned on the point, could not recollect of having heard of more than five instances. A sort of ordeal was sometimes employed. When two persons took contrary oaths, calling down the vengeance of heaven on the perjured, the party who afterwards first sustained any personal or domestic calamity was concluded to be the perjurer. Plunging the hand in boiling oil was also practised, but disapproved of by the intelligent. The hardest laws were those against insolvency. The debtor was doomed to slavery, along with his family, till his debt was paid, without any regard to distinction of caste. The slaves, however, are kindly used; their whole number in the interior is supposed to amount to 3000. Regular usury was not allowed, but an agreement was sometimes made that the sum borrowed should be returned augmented by one-half, at whatever future time it was repaid. The Moors take twenty per cent. of annual interest. The land was the property of the king, but held by the possessor on easy terms, and sometimes, when appropriated to a temple, exempt from rent or civil service.

Religion. The people profess the religion of Buddha, which has by

[n] Dr. Davy's Account of the Interior of Ceylon, p. 177.

some been called atheistical, because it allows of no Creator existing before the universe, and pays worship only to the souls of good men, who have suffered a transmutation resembling deification. In other points of view we find as much fanciful detail on the history of heaven, earth, and distant worlds, and as much imagery of supernatural powers, as in the generality of eastern systems. They believe in the transmutation of men into gods and demons, and of gods into animalcules. Death they consider as a mere change of form. These changes they hold to be infinite, and bounded only by annihilation, which they esteem the acmè of happiness. The universe they consider as eternal, though in a constant state of alteration. The learned among them are as familiar with the details of the system as with the events and interests of their own villages or families. They believe in beings called Brachmeas, who are of greater purity than the gods. These vary in rank, and reside in different departments of the heavens. They have infernal regions, of a heat varying in intensity with the guilt of the individuals doomed to dwell in them. The term Buddha is considered by learned etymologists as meaning wisdom, and is applied to persons of extraordinary endowments and destiny, a certain number of whom is fated to appear in each grand period of the world. One of these, the fourth in order, is the present object of adoration. This being had the power of assuming any form, and of multiplying himself to infinity. He now exists in a mysterious abode or state, which they call Niwanè. The Buddhists of Ceylon have numerous sacred writings, which are extremely obscure, and are reproached for that quality even by the Brahmins. At Kandy there are two regular colleges; and the religious establishment is as regularly organized as in any country whatever. The priests are dressed in yellow, and live in a state of celibacy, but they are permitted to resign their office, and may then marry. Their books are greatly venerated. They are not touch-

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ed without a preliminary obeisance: a person will not sit down where a book is present, unless it is in a higher situation than himself. The priests do not worship the gods, being reckoned their superiors. When they preach, they invite the gods to be of their audience. They are, like Buddha, entitled to be worshipped; and no person, not even a king, must sit in their presence. They were the only persons allowed by the Kandian government to go beyond the bounds of the kingdom, and often wandered over the whole island. The religion of Ceylon, uniting the worship of the gods with that of Buddha, and under the same names, (such as Vishnu,) which are used by the Brahminical Hindoos, shows either an original connection or an accidental incorporation of the two systems. They say that the Brahminical system prevailed before Buddha appeared to revive their own religion, then extinct, which was 600 years before the Christian era.

Literature.

The Singalese language, like the other Indian dialects, has its origin in the Sanscrit, mixed with what is called the Pali. It is, however, a peculiar language, and not, as some have asserted, the same with the Siamese. It has also a peculiar written character, unknown in any other country[o]. It is always written from left to right. Among this people language is almost the only subject that is carefully studied. There are various dialects appropriated to different castes and to different occasions. Reading and writing are general acquirements among the men, but form no part of female education. Their books are written on talipot leaves, which are duly prepared, cut to a uniform shape, and connected together into books by a string passing through holes in the leaves. They are fond of intricacies and displays of art in language. One poem is considered as an extraordinary effort of genius, because it admits of being read from left to right, up and down, and

[o] See a specimen of it in Mr. Cordiner's Description of Ceylon, vol. I. p. 130.

various other ways, making sense in each. The compositions which approach nearest to poetry are addresses to the chiefs, expressive of respect, or soliciting them for favours. They have seven tunes to which they modulate these compositions in the recital. Their instruments of music are of rude simplicity, and most of them noisy, consisting of different sorts of drums, a wind instrument resembling a clarionet, and a fiddle of two strings [p]. Having no numeral characters of their own, they use the Tamul figures, which follow the decimal series. The currency consists of copper, silver, and gold coin. All the last consists of Indian pagodas. In the arts of drawing and painting they are far behind. They are extremely fond of laquer painting, which they perform with a good deal of skill and taste, producing a pretty and brilliant effect. In statuary, as applied to the fabricating of representations of Buddha, they have acquired excellence by practice. Such representations are in request in every temple. They have the art of casting small figures very neatly; and there are good specimens of large ones in the temples. Their architecture is chiefly displayed in their temples. Their dwelling houses have a simplicity suited to a climate which requires no houses excepting as shelter from rain, and a shade from a scorching sun. The floors of their houses are of clay, plastered with cow-dung, an article conducive to cleanliness and to the keeping down of insects. The houses of the chiefs are in the form of square courts built of mud, roofed with tile. This last circumstance serves to distinguish them from the dwellings of the people, who are allowed nothing but thatch [q].—They work in gold and silver with considerable ingenuity and taste, although their tools and apparatus are all portable, and characterized by a simplicity unknown in Europe. Their pottery is coarse

Arts.

[p] They are enumerated and figured by Dr. Davy at p. 210, 211.

[q] See some representations of the temples and houses in the work of Dr. Davy, p. 257, 258, 259.

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and unglazed, but perfectly well adapted for its appropriate uses. The only weaving is of the coarse strong cotton cloth which is worn by the common people. Agriculture is very much respected by them. No manure is used, which is a great drawback from the productiveness of their labours. The land, when exhausted, is allowed to overrun with weeds and jungle, which it soon does, and this is afterwards cut down and burned on the soil, to qualify it for bearing useful crops. The implements of husbandry are remarkably simple[r].

Domestic habits and manners.

The Singalese of the interior are rarely collected in large villages. The only group of this kind seems to be Kandy, the capital of the country. They live either in very small villages, consisting of a few houses, or in detached habitations. These are usually in low sheltered situations, near their rice fields, as they have a particular aversion to wind. The men are engaged in the more laborious occupations of ploughing and banking, the women in weeding and reaping. Their grain is ground at home in hand mills. The Singalese rise at dawn, and go to bed about nine or ten at night. They sleep on mats, generally with a fire in their room. Cakes of cow-dung constitute their ordinary fuel. Their principal meal is at noon, and consists of rice and curry. Though not prohibited from the use of beef by their religion, they abstain from it because it was forbidden by one of their kings; another instance in which Brahminical ideas and customs have become intermingled with their original code of faith and practice. Though unacquainted with what we denominate conviviality, they are a social people, fond of conversation and mutual visits. The men and women form separate circles, and are never seen mixed in society. They are courteous and ceremonious, but, like other Asiatics, unacquainted with all the sentiments which constitute gallantry. Matrimonial alliances are fixed by the parents

[r] See Dr. Davy's wood cuts, ibid. p. 273,-4.

alone. Concubinage and polygamy are contrary to their religion, but are both indulged, particularly polygamy; and here, as in Thibet, a plurality of husbands is much more common than of wives. This practice prevails among all castes and ranks, and the joint husbands are always brothers. Matrimonial infidelity is not uncommon, and easily forgiven, unless when aggravated by a low attachment on the part of the female. But the manners of the people are by no means marked by extreme licentiousness. They have their own notions of propriety and decency, which no one's inclinations allow him to violate. In the relation of parents and children they appear particularly amiable. A woman has seldom more than four children, a circumstance which probably arises from the period of suckling being so long protracted, which it often is to four or five years. The children are named when they are able to eat rice, the name then given being called "the rice name." Their family attachments are strong. During the late rebellion, instances occurred of fathers giving themselves up as soon as they knew that their families were taken. Children are never exposed, except in some of the wildest situations, and under the pressure of necessity. They do not, as some have asserted, turn their sick relations out of doors to die in the fields; though, in order to save their houses from pollution, they sometimes remove them to an adjoining shade to breathe their last. The care which they take of the bodies of the dead is very great, many ceremonious attentions being bestowed preparatory to the ceremony of burning. Low caste people not being allowed to burn their dead, bury them with little ceremony, with the head to the west. In civilization this people is nearly on a par with the Hindoos. In intellectual acquirements they resemble the state of Europeans in the dark ages. They are attentive to natural objects, and acquainted with the names and qualities of the minutest plant that grows within their district. In courtesy they are equal to any nation; in character they

General character.

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are low, tame, and undecided, with few prominent virtues or vices; their natural affections are strong, their passions moderate, and their moral feelings weak.

Singalese of the maritime provinces.

The Singalese of the provinces which have been for some generations habitually subject to Europeans are more remarkable for mildness, bashfulness, timidity, and indolence. In consequence of this last characteristic they are generally in a state of indigence. They shave their beards, while the Kandians do not. Before undergoing that operation for the first time, a young man must give a sumptuous entertainment to his relations and neighbours. Those who cannot afford it retain their beards till their circumstances are improved. The men of influence, called Modelears, retain the insignia of greatness, but their power has been abridged by their European masters. One of them is now placed at the head of every department of government, under the control of the British agents. The dignity of a Modelear is always conferred by the British governor in person, and is of great importance in the eyes of a Singalese. Those who enjoy good incomes do not indulge habitually in any luxurious style of living. A Modelear, when retired to his own dwelling is found stripped to the skin, sitting in an armed chair, with no covering except a piece of muslin on his loins; but in giving entertainments he will expend large sums. They sometimes give a breakfast, or a ball and supper, to their European friends in a splendid style, on particular festive occasions, such as the birth of a child, or the obtaining of any honourable distinction. One of those erections common in the east called Bungaloes, which are spacious open apartments, covered with roofs which serve for an agreeable and elegant awning, is sometimes made for the use of a single evening of pleasure and display, when it is embellished and lighted up in a most magnificent manner. The higher orders of the Singalese in the maritime parts profess Christianity, and perform their marriage ceremonies according to the usages of the Dutch. This is generally done on Sunday,

accompanied with music, dancing, and feasting, to which is sometimes added tumbling, performed by expert natives. When a Singalese pair marries, the thumbs of their right hands are tied together with a slip of cotton cloth, and water is poured on them by the man's father's brother, and the woman's mother's sister.

The Malabar, and Malay inhabitants.

A part of the low country has, from time immemorial, been inhabited by Malabars. These wear large bunches of ear-rings, and encourage the artificial apertures in the flap of the ear to grow to an enormous size, so that a man's hand may pass through them; the lower parts being stretched till they reach the shoulder. A considerable number of Malabars are Mahometans, and go under the name of Moors or Lubbies. They follow the occupation of pedlars, tailors, fishermen, and sailors. These differ from the Singalese in concealing their women. When a Moorish woman is moved from one place to another, if a palanquin cannot be afforded, she is placed cross-legged on an ox, and covered completely with a white sheet, the husband walking by her side. A considerable number of free Malays reside at Ceylon, some of whom are persons of rank who have gone into exile on account of political troubles.—The mari- Christians.
time parts contain many Christians, both of the Romish and Protestant church. The Portuguese, when they settled in the island, destroyed every monument of the existing religion along the sea-coast, converted the temples into Romish churches, and compelled the natives to adopt the forms of their religion. Fifteen priests educated at Goa still exert themselves with daily success in making proselytes[s]. The Dutch, in their turn, disseminated their religion, not by positive persecution, but by enacting that no native could be raised to the rank of a modelear, or enjoy any employment under the government, without conforming to the creed and observances of the reformed church. Hence the higher orders assumed the name of Protestant Christians, which they still retain. Under the British rule some exertions have been made to convey to the natives

[s] Cordiner.

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farther instruction in the Protestant religion, particularly by disseminating translations of the Scriptures, as the standard of Christianity.

Historical revolutions.

The history of Ceylon, previously to the visits paid to it by distant nations, is, like that of continental India, enveloped in uncertainty. We know that the island was frequented by the Arabians and Persians from very distant times, but these have not recorded any particulars which elucidate its history. The Singalese traditions are destitute of historical accuracy. Their first king they maintain to have had a lion for his father [t]. Rama makes a great figure in their legends, and probably was a real personage of illustrious eminence, by whose name a kingdom and city were known. They give a narrative of the different invasions of the island by the Malabars; of their battles with the natives; of their success at one time in subjugating the whole of the island, with the exception of Magam and Roona in the Magampattoo, and of their subsequent expulsion by king Wijeyabahoo.

Discovery by the Portuguese.

The Portuguese discovered Ceylon in 1505. They formed a settlement about 1520, and became firmly established here in 1536. It was in their hands that the natives first saw fire arms employed. By taking a part in the dissensions of the royal families, they sometimes had possession of Kandy. The natives, after having long suffered oppression and insult, formed an alliance with the Dutch for the expulsion of the Portuguese. For this service they agreed that the Dutch should receive all the maritime provinces, except Batticaloe and Putlam. The Portuguese were expelled, and the Dutch established, in 1658.

Who were succeeded by the Dutch.

The Kandians had now a succession of kings who have left behind them different characters, some having reigned in wisdom and peace, others tyrannized with cruelty over a reluctant and a rebellious people. The religion of the country having been neglected, and in a great measure effaced by wars and intestine troubles, Rajah Singah (during whose reign the interesting traveller Knox was de-

[t] Dr. Davy's Account, p. 293.

tained for many years a prisoner) sent to Siam, with the assistance of the Dutch, for priests in order to operate a reformation. The king, Rajadi Rajah Singha, who co-operated with the British in 1796, to expel the Dutch from the maritime provinces, had the character of a voluptuous and indolent man. By this foreign alliance he obtained no sea port, as he had expected, and the only alteration in his condition was, that he got a more powerful neighbour in the maritime provinces. The English afterwards attempted to take possession of Kandy, and were for some time in possession of the metropolis, when, in 1803, the English garrison was attacked, overpowered, and treacherously massacred. A desultory warfare was afterwards carried on for two years. Between the years 1805 and 1815, no active hostilities took place, but the court and kingdom of Kandy were now a scene of the most sanguinary proceedings on the part of the tyrannical sovereign, scarcely equalled in history for their atrocity, and giving rise to a desperate resistance on the part of his subjects. The king evinced a jealousy towards his minister Pilimè Talawè, and inflicted on him some indignities. A rebellion was in consequence raised, and followed by the beheading and impaling of some chiefs, and the execution of the minister in 1812. His successor in office fell under the displeasure of his master in his turn, and was obliged to fly. An execution of seventy respectable persons followed. The wife, children, and near relations of the minister were executed. The mother, after being forced publicly to bray the head of her sons, one after another, in a mortar, immediately after they were separated from the body, was then, along with her sister-in-law, drowned in the adjacent tank. No person was safe. The most innocent, and even the highest of the sacerdotal order, who were supposed almost inaccessible to just punishment for crimes, were sacrificed to the whimsical suspicions of this barbarian. Some native merchants belonging to the British provinces having gone into the Kandian kingdom, were sent back cruelly mutilated. The

And these by the English.

Causes of their occupation of the interior.

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governor, Lieut.-General Brownrigg, declared war, prosecuted the contest with vigour, and the king was secured in a house to which he had gone to take shelter, in January, 1815, was sent to Columbo, and from thence to Vellore, where he is retained in confinement. His name is Sree Wikrimé Rajah Singha. The country submitted to the British power, under the condition of the old laws and administration of the kingdom being maintained. Only 1000 men were kept in the interior, and confined to a few military posts. A dissatisfaction, however, with their new masters soon sprung up. The chiefs conceived that they were treated with no respect, except on official occasions, the English soldiers having, from ignorance, continually offended them by neglect. The English were somewhat disrespectful in their mode of entering the temples and of addressing the priests. A rebellion broke out under a native pretender to the Kandian throne, in October 1817. The war was carried on by the operation of small bodies, and was irregular and severe, and the retaliations made by the English military were often exceedingly inhuman, as in such a situation it was not practicable to maintain a strict obedience to general orders. In a few months the revolt was suppressed. Kandy was taken, and with it the sacred tooth of Buddha, a relic, the possessor of which is considered by the people as rightful sovereign of their country. Simpler and less oppressive arrangements were now formed for conducting the government and apportioning the revenue, which are likely to prove more conducive to the happiness and the satisfaction of the natives. It is an island which, throughout the interior as well as along the sea-shore, possesses admirable natural advantages, and, under an enlightened and generous management, might be rendered one of the most flourishing spots in the world.

A rebellion.

Its suppression

Account of the towns, and other localities.

We shall now take a rapid view of some of its chief localities, particularly the towns, beginning with those along the sea-coast which have been longest known. At the northern extremity of the island are the fort and

town of Jaffnapatam, in 9° 47′ of N. lat. and 80° 9′ of E. long. The fort is the most modern, the best constructed, and handsomest in Ceylon. It is situated on a piece of land called Jaffna, which is sometimes denominated an island, sometimes a peninsula. It seems to be connected with the main island by a fordable strait, which is perhaps a dry isthmus at low water. Within the fort is a Dutch church, containing a tolerable organ, and one of the most respectable places of Christian worship now in the island. There are also a house for the commandant, buildings for the public offices, and houses belonging to Dutch proprietors, which are rented to the British officers; a street of barracks, and one occupied by the mechanics and the lower orders of the people. The pettah, or outer town, half a mile from the fort, contains several thousand inhabitants, mostly Europeans; its streets are regularly built and kept clean, and the chief street finely shaded by rows of large trees on each side. Almost all the Dutch families which formerly resided at Tricomalee have removed to this place, which is recommended by cheapness and agreeableness. The country is fruitful; an air of business prevails, and some regular trade is kept up with the opposite coast of India. Mr. Cordiner remarked, that this country yielded vegetable produce in great variety; but that the culture of the common English potato had not succeeded either here or in any other part of Ceylon. The surface is flat, but rich in every spot, and in high cultivation as far as Point Pedro, the northern extremity, at a distance of twenty-two miles from the town. Here the supreme court of judicature is frequently held, and the governor of the island sometimes comes from Columbo to preside[a]. Many thefts and murders occur in the province. A common form of robbery is to cut open the flaps of men's ears during sleep, and carry off their ear-rings. Yet the people habitually sleep in their houses

Jaffnapatam.

Its neighbourhood.

Prevalent crimes.

[a] Cordiner's Description, vol. I. p. 827.

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without locking their doors, or in the open air in their verandas. The native inhabitants are Malabars, one half of whom are of the Brahminical religion, the other consists of Christians, with a very few Mahometans. Agriculture being in a flourishing state, and a small military force being sufficient to keep possession, this is the only province of Ceylon the revenue of which exceeds its expenses. Tobacco is cultivated in large quantities, and is a standing article of commerce, and a fruitful source of revenue. The timber of the palmyra tree, which is used for rafters in the building of houses, and chanque shells which are much used as ornaments in dress among the Hindoos, are the other principal articles of commerce. In this province are to be seen the remains of thirty-two Portuguese churches, and there are a few chapels in which the Romish worship is still celebrated. In the neighbourhood of the town there are some humble Hindoo temples of recent construction, built since universal toleration in religion has been re-established.

North-west coast.

Proceeding round the western coast we traverse a country which is completely laid under water in the rainy season, though not to such a depth as to prevent travelling. Here we have on the right two small islands, called "the Two Brothers," then another large one called Manaar, containing a fort. A little farther south is Aripo, the place where the governor fixes his head quarters during the pearl fishery. Here and at Condatchy the country is bare, and at other times almost deserted.

Aripo and Condatchy.

Peninsula of Calpenteen.

Proceeding farther south, we come to the long peninsula of Calpenteen, lying parallel to the line of the coast for about sixty miles, and connected with it by an isthmus at its south end. It has a fort, (without guns,) an excellent wharf, and a small village adjoining, containing a Portuguese priest. The inhabitants are pretty numerous, and export salted fish to Columbo, for which they bring back rice. The peninsula is low, and flat, sandy, and covered with cocoa-nut trees. The coast of Ceylon, at this place,

is at all seasons beautiful and verdant, and possesses much natural fertility. Elephants and other wild animals, birds of beautiful plumage, and a great variety of insects, are seen here. Putlam, lying opposite to the peninsula, is one of the largest and most commercial native villages in Ceylon. Here the areca nuts, cardamoms, black pepper, and coffee of the Kandian provinces, are exchanged for the manufactures of Coromandel, chiefly by Mahometan merchants. Oysters are gathered along the shore at all times in great numbers, and the sands contain many beautiful shells. The country is periodically inundated by the sea to a distance of several miles from the shore, and considerable quantities of salt are crystallized by the heat of the sun, and collected by the natives. Putlam.

About a day's journey south from this is Chilaw, a comfortable village, lying between two branches of a large river. A pearl fishery is occasionally carried on here. At this part of our progress along the coast, the inhabitants begin to consist of Singalese instead of Malabars. Here the mountains of Kandy come in sight. No mountains are seen between Jaffnapatam and Chilaw. Negumbo is a beautiful village, which we enter by passing through a cocoa nut grove with a shaded avenue. It contains a pentagonal fort. Several Dutch families live in it, apparently happy, but reduced in their circumstances by the political vicissitudes of the country. At this place the cinnamon plantations commence, extending, with few interruptions, a great way beyond Columbo. The country is well cultivated, and the people wear an air of comfort. The finest fruits are reared, and sell at very low prices. From this to Columbo the country is luxuriant, well cultivated, and the road lined with excellent houses, indicating the approach of the traveller to the capital of the present government. Chilaw. Negumbo.

Columbo lies in 7° of N. latitude. The fort is composed of seven bastions with intervening curtains. It measures a mile and a quarter in circumference, and is almost entirely surrounded with water, being situated on a City of Columbo. The fort.

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projecting piece of land belonging to a stripe which lies between the sea and a large fresh water lake. Two-thirds are encompassed by the sea, the other is bounded by the lake; two narrow necks of land, like causeways, connect it with the main land on two sides. None but small vessels can lie close to the wharf, and there is no good harbour where vessels can at all times ride in safety. The interior of the fort is beautiful, the streets regular and shaded with trees. The houses in general have only one story, and verandas in front. The water within the fort is brackish. That which is used is brought from a distance of a mile and a half. Rich and beautiful views are obtained from an excellent walk surrounding the ramparts of the fort.

The pettah.

The pettah is situated a few hundred yards to the east of the fort, on the same piece of doubly peninsulated land. It is larger than the town within the fort. The streets are regular and clean. It contains an orphan asylum for the children of Europeans. The boys educated in it perform the business of clerks in the various offices of government. It is bounded on the north by the sea, on the south by the lake, on the west by the esplanade of the fort. On the east, where it is connected with the main land, it was formerly defended by a fortified wall.

Suburbs.

Beyond this, many straggling streets extend for several miles into the country. The fort is chiefly inhabited by English, the pettah by Dutch and Portuguese, and the suburbs, which are the most populous of all, by native Singalese. Columbo contains in all upwards of 50,000 inhabitants. The houses of the Singalese, here, and indeed over all the island, are much more comfortable than the huts of the Hindoos on the continent, especially about Madras. Bathing in fresh water is a daily practice among the native inhabitants of Columbo, who frequent the lakes and canals in large companies. Men, women, and children, are intermixed, but without stripping themselves naked. They stand immersed nearly up to the shoulders, and from a pitcher pour water over their heads continually for half an hour or longer. A dread of

sharks prevents them from bathing in the sea.—The neighbourhood of Columbo contains a great variety of hill and dale, and furnishes a number of delightful rides, scarcely equalled any where else within so small a compass. The face of the country is chiefly covered with trees. Much constant attention is required to keep any spot in the state of a cultivated open field. Even when a road is formed, shrubs spring up upon it so rapidly, that if it be neglected for two months, the traces of it can hardly be discovered. Several pleasant rides, from three to eight miles in extent, are formed, leading from one gate of the fort, traversing the intermediate country, and returning by the other gate; along these many pleasing villas have been erected, and sometimes light and elegant bungaloes of wooden pillars, roofed with cocoa nut leaves. The borders of the lake are finely diversified, and it affords an opportunity for taking pleasant aquatic excursions. It contains a large peninsula, of fertile soil and varied surface, originally connected with the shore at the side opposite the fort, and also joined to the fort itself by an artificial causeway. This piece of land, with its indented borders, thus divides the lake into two. It was formerly occupied by slaves in the service of the Dutch government. The construction of the fishing boats used here, and on the Calany-ganga river, is curious. Each consists of a canoe made of one tree scooped out, about fifteen feet long, which is too light to allow a person to step into it without oversetting, were it not for a small parallel log of wood, with pointed ends, floating alongside at a little distance, and connected with the canoe by two sets of elastic poles. This is called an outrigger. To this the ropes of the sail extend, by which it is lowered in an instant. Strabo, Pliny, and Solinus describe a similar boat as used in their time in the same seas. Columbo enjoys one of the most salubrious climates in the world. Those who remain within doors during the heat of the day find it agreeably temperate. Out of a thousand British soldiers, it often happens that not one is lost in two

Neighbourhood.

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months. The thermometer fluctuates about 80° of Fahrenheit's scale, being seldom more than seven degrees under or above it. The insulated situation of the place, its partaking of the salutary influence of both monsoons, the frequency of refreshing showers, the land and sea breezes, and the bibulous soil, preventing the stagnation of water, are circumstances which all contribute to this happy effect.

Courts of justice.

In 1802 a supreme court of judicature was established at Columbo, consisting of a chief justice, and one puisne justice, and annexed to it was the advocate fiscal, the registrar, a sheriff or fiscal, and a competent number of clerks and other officers. Two Dutch gentlemen who had learned the English language were, in Mr. Cordiner's time, (1805) the only persons who acted as advocates and proctors. There are three subordinate courts for settling less important causes, civil and criminal. The number of causes which come before them is great, the people being extremely litigious, and fond of having their complaints heard and investigated.

Style of society.

Persons in the small circle of genteel English society at Columbo, find it extremely agreeable, and prefer it to that of the other English stations in India; but the habits of that nation, making conviviality a necessary ingredient in all easy social intercourse, operate as a cause of separation from the Dutch and other Europeans, except on public occasions of infrequent occurrence, when, however, they show sufficient cordiality.

Remarks.

Much advantage would accrue to the English nation, and those with whom they come in contact, if they could more readily surmount this awkwardness, and resign their slavish attachment to particular modes of intercourse, which are often too expensive to admit of a due extension of the bonds of society. The institution of literary and scientific associations, such as the Asiatic and other literary societies in Calcutta, have had a happy effect in bringing together individuals who, though mutually allied by a community of taste and pursuit, would otherwise have been unknown to one another. It is certainly agreeable, for example, to find the Da-

nish Missionaries and other oriental literati becoming associated with the well informed English at Calcutta. Ceylon affords an ample field for philosophical investigation, as well as the formation of economical active institutions, which might afford agreeable employment for persons associated in liberal pursuits, and some such might undoubtedly be found among the Dutch and other inhabitants of that island. The spirit might at least be cherished. The cultivation of elegant and cheap pleasures of this kind would give a happiness and a dignity to the society of the country, which mere extemporaneous agreeableness, however desirable in its own place, never can impart.

Proceeding southward from Columbo, we pass Caltura, a village pleasantly situated on the banks of a river, with a small fortification, and inhabited by Singalese and some descendants of the Portuguese:—Also Barbareen, a place famed for its oysters;—and afterwards arrive at a more important place, Point de Galle, at a distance of seventy-eight miles from Columbo. The road lies along a low sandy shore, luxuriant in cocoa-nut trees. At Point de Galle there is a large fort, within which almost all the Europeans live. There are very few large houses built without it. There is a manufacture of ropes from the fibrous rind of the cocoa nut; these are called coiar ropes. A considerable trade is carried on in small craft. The fort is on a rocky promontory. Its works are extensive, but it is commanded by other eminences. The harbour is tolerable, and ranks the second in the island, being commodious and secure, though small, and somewhat difficult of entrance. It is commanded by the fort. From this place the productions of the island were shipped for Europe by the Dutch, and part of them still is. The disease called elephantiasis, because the legs of the patient swell so as to resemble those of the elephant, prevails here among the natives. It has not been known to attack any Europeans, except such as were in extreme poverty.

Caltura.

Point de Galle.

Beyond this is the fertile province of Matura, filled with

Matura.

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beautiful scenes resembling the parks of European gentlemen. Near Belligam, in this province, is a Singalese temple of Buddha, called Agra-boddha-ganni, with some idols and hieroglyphical paintings representing the history of their kings. The statues of Vishnu and Siva are conjoined with that of Buddha. The architecture is peculiar but elegant, and near it is a tomb of Buddha, resembling a bell of the most tasteful form [x]. Near this temple is a large statue sculptured out of the solid rock, and known by the name of Crusta Raja, and supposed to represent an Indian prince who subdued this part of the island.

Temple of Agra-boddha-ganni.

Belligam. Fishing trade.

Belligam is a populous fishing village. The right of fishing is let by the government to men of property. This is the case along the whole coast of the island. Hence fish are expensive, and the fishermen are not allowed to supply vessels as they pass, lest they should misrepresent to the renter the quantity of fish which they have caught, of which he is entitled to one-third. Each of the villages along this coast contains a Christian school. Farther on is the little town of Matura, on the Neel-ganga river, to which a small fort is attached. It contains several comfortable houses belonging to families of Dutch extraction.

Dondra-head.

Three miles to the east is Dondra-head, the southernmost point of the island, which seemed to Mr. Cordiner to be a low stripe of land covered with cocoa trees, but a mile to the east there is a higher and more rugged promontory. Just at the extremity of Dondra are to be seen the remains of a Hindoo temple, probably once the most magnificent structure in the island. They consist chiefly of a long avenue of 200 stone pillars, the stone frame of a door carved with stern looking heads and borders of foliage, and the shattered relics of several images. Close to this is a temple of Buddha. There is also a mud-built sanctuary dedicated to Vishnu, divided into several apartments,

[x] A plate of it is given by the Rev. Mr. Cordiner in vol. I. p. 188, of his Description.

hung round with calico, on which are printed figures of some sanguinary deities. It contains a stone image of Ganesa, having the head of an elephant on the body of a man. Here the Singalese come to be sworn when about to give legal evidence. A few miles inland from Dondra-head is the stupendous mountain of stone called by the Singalese Mulgeerelenna, and by the Dutch Adam's Brecht, being one entire rock of a cubical form, 300 feet high. A winding flight of 545 steps leads to the summit, said to have been formed 1500 years ago. On the summit is a bell-shaped tomb of Buddha, similar to that which accompanies all his temples in the island. From this situation the view is rich and magnificent. A little way from the top there is a remarkable natural cave, and two artificial caverns, forming gloomy temples of Buddha, containing many statues, and hieroglyphical paintings. At the foot of the rock are the houses of ten priests. The province of Matura is very populous; it contains many temples, and about 2000 priests. It is well cultivated, and yields a considerable revenue; but unhealthy, and very liable to epidemic fevers. Agriculture is now likely to flourish in it; as it is relieved from the discouragement which its Dutch masters threw in its way for the sake of creating an exclusive market for the rice of Batavia.

Mulgeerelenna rock.

After we have passed to the east of Dondra-head, and begun to take a northerly direction by travelling along the coast, we come to Tengalle, an old Dutch fortress in a district allotted to the hunting of elephants. Here a great many of these animals are caught. The village contains 300 inhabitants, chiefly fishermen.

Tengalle.

Between Tengalle and Batticaloe, the country is inhospitable from its neglected state and the multitudes of ferocious animals which it contains, so that the traveller often prefers a coasting voyage to a land journey over this interval. The wildest part, though of great natural fertility, is called Mahagampattoe, on the shores of which are the salt bays of Magam, by which the Kandians were

Mahagampattoe.

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always supplied with salt while at war with the [illegible] of the maritime districts. It never was in the power the latter to prevent them from supplying themselves [illegible] this place. The sugar cane and maize grow here with uncommon luxuriance, but cultivation cannot be carried on for want of protection from the depredations of wild beasts. Agriculture in this quarter would also stand in need of tanks to afford a due supply of water, as the climate is much more liable to protracted droughts than on the western shore. Some tanks had been formerly maintained here, but in Mr. Cordiner's time they had, through the selfishness of some individuals, and the supineness of others, gone to decay. There are several marks of former cultivation, some small villages at great mutual distances, and some traces of old religious monuments.

Batticaloe.

Batticaloe, on the east side of the island, lies much more to the north than Columbo on the west, being nearly in the latitude of Chilaw. The fort is on an island of the same name, three miles and a half in circumference, contained in an inlet of the sea. There is a small village, all the inhabitants of which speak the Malabaric language, and chiefly consist of Hindoos and Mahometans, some Romish Portuguese, and a very few Protestants. There are several islands adjacent. The country is flat, but the ground gradually rises towards the interior till it terminates in high mountains, among which is a rocky eminence of a cubical form, on the top of which is a palace belonging to the king of Kandy. Batticaloe is garrisoned by sixty sepoys, and fifteen gun Lascars. The surrounding country is one of the cheapest and most fertile in the island. Fish are in great plenty. The native inhabitants are described as extremely civil and obliging[y]. They have a contented and happy appearance. The scenery is adorned with the magnificent talipot tree, the largest of the palms. Mr. Cordiner saw one which measured 100 feet high, and six in circumference.

Trincomalee.

Nearly a degree north from Batticaloe, is Trincomalee, the most important station on the coast of Ceylon, from

[y] Cordiner, vol. I. p. 261, 262.

[illegible] land, commanding harbour which it possesses, [illegible] affording ample protection to an extended com- [illegible] t is situated in N. lat. 8° 28'. From its position, and [illegible] dy entrance and egress which it affords at all seasons, it is better adapted for a marine depôt than any other station in India; yet it has been unaccountably neglected by the English, since they obtained possession of the island. The soil here is rather dry, and the climate unhealthy, and in these particulars, the Dutch did not improve it; they wished to obviate the cupidity of rival nations, by discouraging the visits of strangers. The territory might, however, be cultivated with success. As it is, it presents, in point of verdure, a marked contrast to the sandy and flat shore of Madras, with its rugged cliffs, its woods, its plains, and its villages. It contains a copious variety of romantic and sublime prospects. The fortifications are principally of Portuguese workmanship; a little was added to them by the French, but scarcely any thing by the Dutch. While it is the most likely place for an enemy to attack on account of its value, it is at the same time capable of being made stronger than any other in Ceylon. Every convenience is afforded except that of wet-docks, for which there is not a sufficient rise of the tide. While Mr. Cordiner was there, it had a neglected aspect, and the houses in the fort were in great disrepair. At one time the English garrison had suffered from a neglect to provide fresh animal food, being subsisted five days in the week on salt provisions. Six miles to the north-west are the hot wells of Cannia, which have a temperature of 106½, and are regarded with religious veneration by the Hindoo natives, who have built a temple at the place.

Wells of Cannia.

The road leading west from Trincomalee towards Jaffnapatam, part of which is well adapted for carriages, is in many places rich in romantic prospects; and rest-houses for the accommodation of travellers are built in different parts. The inhabitants of the country have the appear-

Country between Trincomalee and Jaffnapatam.

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ance of innocence and happiness. Cocoa-nut trees are rare on this side of the island compared to the other. A few oxen and buffaloes are kept. Wild elephants inhabit the woods, and alligators the rivers and their banks. Moletive, on the sea shore, is a neat comfortable village, with some spacious houses. A garrison is kept in it, but it seems to have been made a military post for keeping open the communication between Trincomalee and Jaffnapatam. Ancient redoubts are found in different parts, but scarcely any other monument of human labour, though the district was once highly cultivated. The places dedicated to religious uses were razed by the Portuguese, and private houses have always been formed of too perishing materials to leave any permanent traces of their former existence.

City of Kandy.

A few prominent objects in the interior of Ceylon, the late kingdom of Kandy, remain to be noticed. In the first place, the capital city, Kandy, in a district called Yattineura, is at the head of an extensive valley, and about 1400 feet above the level of the sea, on the borders of an artificial lake made by the late king, surrounded by wooded hills and mountains, varying from 200 to 2000 feet in height. Its situation is beautiful and romantic, but in a military view insecure, and hardly admits of defence. The houses are all of clay, of one story, and all thatched, except those of the chiefs, which are tiled. There is one street which used to be exclusively inhabited by Malabars, relatives and dependants of the king, in whom he could place more confidence than in his own subjects.

The Palace.

The palace occupied a considerable area. Its front, about 200 yards long, has rather an imposing appearance; it rises above a handsome mole, and looks towards the principal temples. It is terminated at one extremity by a hexagonal two-storied building, in which the king presented himself on great occasions to the people collected below; at the other it is terminated by the women's apart-

ments, on which the sun, moon, and stars, as insignia of royalty, were carved in stone. Here the king and his ladies stationed themselves to witness the processions at the public festivals. This city abounds in temples, which seem to have been considered as a necessary appendage to a royal palace. Every royal residence in the island had a number of them, some of which have survived the palaces to which they were attached. The Dalada Malegawa, the domestic temple of the king, is the most highly venerated of any in the country, as it contains the precious relic, THE TOOTH OF BUDDHA, to which the whole island was dedicated. It has two stories, and is in the Chinese style of architecture, but small. The sanctum is an inner room in the upper story, about twelve feet square, without a window, and never visited by the light of the sun. It is a place of the most striking splendour. The doors have polished brass pannels, and a curtain before and behind them. The roof and walls are lined with gold brocade, and scarcely any thing is to be seen but gold, gems, and sweet smelling flowers. On a low stage occupying half the room, there is a profusion of flowers tastefully arranged before two or three small figures of Buddha, one of crystal, and one of gilt silver, and four or five caskets called karanduas, containing relics. All the karanduas except one are small, not more than a foot high, and wrapped up in numerous folds of muslin. One is much larger, uncovered, and decorated with the utmost brilliancy. It is five feet four inches high, and nine feet ten in circumference at the base. It is of silver gilt on the outside, of neat but plain workmanship, and studded with a few gems. Rich ornaments are attached to it, consisting of gold chains, and a great variety of gems suspended. Here, among the rest, is a bird formed entirely of diamonds, rubies, blue sapphires, emeralds, and cat's-eyes set in gold, the metal being hid by the profusion of stones. This great karandua is the receptacle of the "Dalada," which is considered as the tooth of Buddha. It is inclosed,

Temples.

Tooth of Buddha.

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first in a small karandua, which is within a larger, and there are four of these, one within another, besides the great karandua.

Colleges.

Two institutions called the Malwatté Wihare and the Asgirie Wiharé, both without the town, are at the head of the ecclesiastical establishment of the country. They are a sort of monasteries, or colleges, the one containing about forty priests. The sacred buildings are rendered ornamental by the groves of cocoa-nut trees, and the venerable banyans around them, which are carefully preserved. The appearance of Kandy altogether has declined since it fell into the hands of the English. They do nothing towards the repairing of the temples; they have pulled down much and have built but little[z].

Adam's Peak.

The high mountain called Adam's Peak, is one of the chief curiosities of the island. The approach to it, for a considerable way off, is rugged and difficult. The peak is of a conical form, rising rapidly and majestically to a point. The ascent near to the top is precipitous, and lives are sometimes lost in climbing it, although iron chains are fixed in the rocks, to aid the numerous pilgrims who visit it. Those who have been on the summit describe the beauty and grandeur of the prospect enjoyed from it in the highest terms[a]. The area here is very narrow, and walled in to prevent accidents. Here Buddha is supposed, when he landed on his first visit to the island, to have left the mark of his foot. A superficial hollow, five feet long, is venerated by the natives as the sacred impression. It is ornamented with a margin of brass studded with a few ordinary gems, and covered with a roof which is supported by four wooden pillars fixed to the rock by four iron chains. The roof is lined with coloured cloths, and its margin decked with flowers and streamers. Lower down in the same rock, there is a little niche of masonry dedicated to Samen, the guardian god or saint protector

[z] Dr. Davy's Account of the Interior of Ceylon, p. 364—371.
[a] Ibid p. 342.

of the mountain, with a small house of one room for the officiating priest.—This peak is visited by numerous pilgrims, who, assisted by a priest, perform devotions according to a ritual. It is the custom, at the conclusion of the ceremony, for relations young and old, to salute one another, and the usage is accompanied with symptoms of the liveliest affectionate feeling. Each pilgrim makes a small offering; these are placed on the sacred impression, and removed by a servant. They are the perquisites of the chief priest of the Malwatté Wiharé. The height of the peak is about 7000 feet above the surface of the sea. The temperature, when Dr. Davy visited it, fluctuated between 51° and 59°, being sufficiently low to give a chilly feeling to persons used to the high temperature of the plains. The name of "Adam's Peak," was given to the mountain by the Mahometans of Ceylon. The Singalese call it Sree-pada, which is also the name of the impression which gives it sanctity; sometimes Samenella, from the name of its guardian angel.

General aspect of the country.

The whole of the interior of Ceylon is interesting from its natural fertility, and the beautiful and romantic views which it often displays. Much of it, however, consists of impenetrable and gloomy forests. Clumps of fragrant lemon grass diffuse in most places a delicious odour. The climate, being diversified by elevation and exposure, yet every where fine, contributes with the fertility of the soil to impress us with the high capabilities which might here be brought into operation under enlightened management [b], but the country does not present many objects either natural or artificial, which would appear interesting in topographical detail. We may notice, however, two large lakes or tanks in the interior, on the north-east side of the mountains, in the direction of Trincomalee. The one is the lake of Minerè, fifteen or

Lake of Minerè.

[b] Mr. Cordiner states, vol. I. p. 326, that the attempts to rear potatoes at Jaffna, or any other part of Ceylon, had not been successful. But Dr. Davy, however, p. 437, tells us, that this valuable root succeeded at Maturatta, a post about 2700 feet above the level of the sea.

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twenty miles in circumference, the waters of which are confined by an embankment about a quarter of a mile long. The outlet is formed by very large masses of rock. This was probably a source of great and extensive fertility at a former period, when its waters were directed by man, but these are now allowed to run waste, forming swamps, and supporting a rank vegetation, which contributes to the unwholesomeness of that part of the country.—Twenty-nine miles north-east from this is the lake of Kandellè which has embankments of greater magnitude than that of Minerè; one is about a mile and a half long, and twenty feet high, besides which there is another of smaller size. The outlets, or sluices, are of vast strength, and constructed with great art; but the lake itself is of much smaller extent than that of Minerè, being only three or four miles in circumference.

Kandellè.

Laccadive islands.

The Laccadive islands, lying seventy-five miles to the west of Malabar, are thirty-two in number, besides rocks and dry spots too small to be inhabited. They extend from the 10th to the 12th degree of N. latitude. They are separated by wide channels. The largest of them does not contain six square miles of land. They are surrounded by coral rocks and shoals, which render the approach dangerous. They yield no grain, their only produce being cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts, and plantains. The inhabitants, who are poor, subsist on cocoa-nuts and fish; they are of Malabaric extraction, and profess the Mahometan religion. They export coir (the fibrous husk of the cocoa-nut) either in the raw state or manufactured into ropes. The best coir cables in the west of the peninsula are made at Anjengo and Cochin, from the fibres of the Laccadive cocoa-nuts. Some coral is carried from the surrounding reefs to the continent of India, where it is carved into images, and burned for quicklime. These islands were discovered by Vasco de Gama, but they have not been properly explored. They are politically dependent on Canara, and under the dominion of the English.

To the south of the Laccadives, and extending between the eighth degree of north latitude and the equator, are the Maldives, consisting of numerous islands and islets, grouped into twelve clusters called Attollons, some of which are round, others oval; a rampart of rocks surrounding each cluster serves to defend it from the sea, which rages here with great fury. The large islands are inhabited and cultivated, but a great number are mere rocks and shoals, many of which are flooded at spring tides. They have never been completely explored. Between the different attollons a considerable trade is carried on, as the different branches of manufacturing industry are confined to distinct groups of islands, some being inhabited by weavers, others by goldsmiths, locksmiths, potters, mat-makers, joiners, or other mechanics, all of which are separate. The traders going from island to island are sometimes a year from home. Here, as in the Laccadives, the cocoa-nut tree is the chief vegetable production; yet the trees are in greater variety than those of the Laccadives; they have, among others, the wood called *candu*, which is compared to cork for its lightness. Ambergris and coral are collected in great abundance on the shores. An important fishery of cowries is carried on. Cattle are rare in these islands. Dogs are banished from them. Poultry is in great abundance. Dreadful depredations are committed both by the rats and the ants. The Maldivians are well made; their complexions are olive; they seem to be of Hindoo origin, with a mixture of Arabian blood[c], as their beards are bushy and their bodies hairy. Some of their women are as fair as Europeans. They have a peculiar language. They profess the Mahometan religion but retain some traces of an older creed. They are, for instance, in the practice of sacrificing annually to the god of the winds, by launching on the sea barks crowned with garlands, and filled with amber and fragrant wood, which they have set

The Maldives.

Internal trade.

Inhabitants.

[c] Asiat. Annual Register, 1802, Characters, p. 17, 18.

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on fire. They dress in light silk and cotton [illegible]. The more learned among them speak Arabic, expound the Koran, and possess some ideas in astronomy and medicine. Peyrard, who suffered shipwreck here in 1602, describes the natives as an ingenious, brave, and industrious race, but of warm temperaments and dissolute morals. By some Europeans who have visited them, they are praised for their inoffensiveness and hospitality. In 1777, a French vessel, with some ladies of rank, was wrecked on the island of Imetay, and all the sufferers met with the kindest treatment from the chief and his subjects. In 1812, Lord Minto, governor-general of British India, received from the sultan of the Maldives a letter, stating that the vessel Europa, under British colours, had been cast away on the uninhabited island of Andue, and that the crew and passengers, amounting to fifty-three in number, were treated in the most hospitable manner, although the conduct of several of them was insolent and outrageous in the extreme. The complaint received due attention, reparation was made for the injuries inflicted, and the whole transaction served to place the character of these people in a most favourable light. We are little acquainted with their internal government, but it does not appear that the groups of islands ever engage in mutual warfare. The houses of the inhabitants in general are of cocoa wood and leaves. Some of the richer traders have stone houses. The sultan's palace is a low stone building, regularly fortified. The sultan has long been accustomed to send an annual embassy to Ceylon, which has been continued since that island came under the dominion of the English.

Their hospitality.

Government.

Foreign trade.

At one time, a vessel or two from the British settlements used to visit the Maldives to load cowries, but owing to the unhealthiness of the climate and the long detention found necessary, these visits were discontinued, and the trade is now carried on by Maldivian vessels, which arrive at Balasore in Orissa in the months of June and July, loaded with the various produce of the cocoa tree, and

with marine products, such as cowries, turtle shell and salted fish. They leave it in December, carrying home sugar and some other manufactures, but chiefly rice. Ships from eastern India sometimes resort to the Maldives to procure shark fins for the Chinese, among whom they are valued as an excellent seasoning for soup.

BOOK L.

INDOSTAN CONTINUED.

PART IV.

A Historical and Moral View of India.

BOOK L.

THE extensive countries now described have, both from physical and historical data, been supposed to be the earliest seat of a regularly organized civil society. The warm climate and abundant productions of India must have afforded every facility to its inhabitants for uniting in the social state. When we consult the historic page, we find that an intercourse between it and western Asia existed from the most remote ages. The books of Moses make mention of the aloe wood, the ebony, the cinnamon, and the precious stones of India, though the country was not then known by name. At a later period we find the Phenicians, the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Romans, repairing to the coasts of Malabar for the light stuffs, the indigo and other colouring drugs, the gum-lac, the articles of ivory and mother-of-pearl, which that country exported[a]. Consequently a certain degree of civilization must have existed among some Indian nations, and they must have lived in political society some ages before they were brought into

Antiquities of the Hindoos.

[a] See our History of Geography, Books VIII. and XI.

a state of regular communication with the rest of the world by the invasion of Alexander. We find the religious and political system of India, at the era of Alexander and the Ptolemies, the same with those of modern Indostan. The division into castes, separated from one another by rigorous laws, formed, at that period, an essential and fundamental Indian institution. Arrian and Strabo enumerate seven castes, while we only acknowledge four leading divisions of this kind, but it is well known that the subdivisions are numerous, and that there are anomalous groups of persons which might be reckoned separate castes. Such are the shepherds, or nomadic and predatory tribes, and also the political functionaries of the state.—The Macedonians found the same varieties of fantastic devotees, called fakeers, who have been viewed with so much astonishment by our modern travellers. Some lived in forests, feeding on roots, and using the barks of trees for their only clothing; others sold amulets and miraculous remedies to the credulous; others lay whole days on the ground, exposing themselves to torrents of drenching rain with consummate patience; while others sat on stones heated almost to redness, and braved at the same instant the rays of an ardent sun and the stings of numerous insects[b]. All of them wore an immense quantity of hair on the head, which was encouraged to grow to its utmost, never cut nor cleaned[c]. Strabo rejected as fabulous the accounts which he received of their practice of bending the fingers backward and the toes of the feet forward, so as to walk on the upper part of the foot[d]; yet these are exercises to which the fakeers are daily addicted.

Ancient devotees.

In those ancient times there were also courtezans attached to the temples, and placed under an inspector, who called them together at the sound of his bell[e]. The self-immolation of widows on the funeral piles of their hus-

Female attendants of the temples, &c.

[b] Onesicritus, Megasthenes, and Clitarchus, quoted by Strabo. Geogr. lib. xv.

[c] Dionys. Perieg. v. 1012.

[d] Strabo, II. XV.

[e] Aristobulus, quoted by Strabo.

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bands[f]; the use of ivory rings on the arms of parasols and of white slippers[g], characterized the Indians before the Christian era. The abuses which had crept into their religious system; the extravagant superstitions with which it was loaded; and the grossness of the allegorical emblems employed to represent the Divinity, are considered by some, though rather theoretically, as decisive proofs of a highly remote origin.

Extravagant pretensions.

But we must not, on this point, give way to the exaggerations of some persons, who have been actuated by party spirit. There is no monument possessing the slightest pretensions to authenticity that leads us farther back than the epoch of Moses. Some of the astronomical tables of India claim a higher antiquity; but these have been shewn by an illustrious mathematician to be drawn up from a retrograde calculation[h]; and the Surya-Siddhanta, their oldest book of astronomy, which they pretend to have been given them by revelation two millions of years ago, must have been composed within these 800 years[i].

The *Maha-Bharat*, or universal history, the Ramayana, and the Puranas, are mere legends and poems, from which no plausible chronology can be obtained, and none of any kind prior to Alexander[k]. The European literati who have assigned to these treatises a higher antiquity, still acknowledge that they have suffered numerous interpolations[l]. The Vedas, the oldest of all the sacred books of the Indians, if we may draw a conclusion from the calendar annexed to them, and the position of the colure of the solstices which that calendar indicates, may be 3200 years old, that is, nearly as ancient as Moses[m].

[f] Cicero, Quæst. Tuscul. V. 27.

[g] Arrian, Ind. c. 30. p. 330. edit. Gronovii.

[h] De Laplace, Système du Monde, p. 330.

[i] Bentley, in the Asiat. Researches, vol. VI. p. 537, and IX. p. 195.

[k] Paterson on the Chronology of the Mayadha Emperors of India, and the epochs of Vittramadytya, &c. Asiat. Reg. vol. IX.

[l] Edinb. Review, vol. XX. p. 455, XXIII. p. 42.

[m] Colebrooke's Memoir on the Vedas, Asiat. Researches, vol. VIII. p. 493.

Adopting these moderate opinions on the antiquity of Indian civilization, we still find enough left to excite our admiration. The Hindoo nation, united for about 3000 years under the same religious creed, the same laws and institutions, presents a phenomenon so much the more rare and interesting as their country has been invaded by many foreign hordes, attracted by the fertility of the soil, and the unwarlike character of the aboriginal people.

Population of Indostan.

The population of Indostan, amounting, at the lowest calculation, to 134,000,000, is composed of two distinct classes; descendants of the ancient inhabitants, and tribes of foreign extraction. The real Indians call the latter *Milytch*, a term equivalent to barbarian among the Greeks and Romans[n]. The number of these tribes amounts to thirty, if we include among them the nomades who occupy the mountains and the deserts. The most conspicuous are the Tartars and Mongols, the Afghâns or Patans, of whom the Rohillas form a branch, the Belooches, who seem to have come from Arabia, the Malays, the Persians, particularly the Guebres or Parsees, the Arabs, the black and white Jews, and the black Portuguese, a mixed breed of Europeans and Hindoos who are widely spread over the coasts of the Deccan and the province of Bengal. These foreign races have come under our view in the course of our topographical details. Their manners and laws are greatly diversified. Their total number has been rated at ten millions.

Mixture of races.

The Hindoos.

The indigenous inhabitants are the Hindoos, or descendants of the ancient Indians. They formerly were the exclusive possessors of India, and still occupy the finest and most extended tracts of the country. Some of them have mingled with foreign blood, and adopted foreign religions and manners, in whole or in part. In this list we may include the Buddhists of the north-east of Ben-

[n] Wahl, II. p. 866.

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gal and the kingdom of Assam, and the Singalese. The Seiks are distinguished from the rest by a new creed and certain institutions to which it has given birth. The Laccadivians, Maldivians, Batnians, Gookers, and several other local communities of the ancient Hindoos, have lost the purity of their blood, by mixing with Mahometans from Arabia and Persia. Some Hindoo tribes, have, without mingling with others, either degenerated from the primitive character of the nation in the sequestrated abodes which they have chosen in the midst of mountains and forests, still preserving traits of coincidence sufficient to identify their origin; or else they retain a character still more ancient than that of the other Hindoos, and which has never become thoroughly conformed to their widely predominating polity. Such are the Nepâlese, the Kookies, the Gonds, the Bheels, the Kallis, and other similar hordes, whose mode of life has separated them from the civilized mass of their countrymen. Herodotus speaks of a savage tribe of this description under the name of *Padæi*, who not only ate raw flesh, being mere savage hunters, but even killed and devoured the bodies of their relatives when exhausted by age and infirmity, a custom which was probably the result of some fixed law, or transmitted by traditionary precept. The same horrible custom is said to prevail to this hour among the Battahs in the north of Sumatra, a people afterwards to be described. Knox accuses the Bedahs of Ceylon of cannibalism. The ancient books called the Puranas mention a cannibal tribe which lived in the forests of Indostan, and was called in Sanscrit Vyada, a term which originally signified "tormentors," and "man-eaters," though now employed simply to denote "hunters." Whether these common features of resemblance are to be considered as denoting a community of origin, or are merely the effect of an independent but similar set of causes moulding the human character in different places to the same pattern; these races are to be viewed as most probably bands of savages whose mode of life

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withdrew them some way or other from the influence of the laws of Menu, by which the great mass of the Hindoo nation was united in one political and religious community. BOOK I.

The genuine Hindoos being the most numerous, as well as the most remarkably artificial, claim our most particular attention, and, although in the preceding details several traits of their character have presented themselves, they are worthy of a more regular description in this place.

Physical character of the Hindoos.

The Hindoos may be considered as belonging to the first variety of the human race. In the form of the cranium, the features of the countenance, and the proportions of the limbs, they resemble the European nations more than they do the Persians and the Arabs. But their complexions are almost black in the south of the Peninsula, and, though lighter in the northern mountains, they always retain an olive tint, and do not partake of the white and red of the Europeans.

Languages and dialects.

The languages spoken by the different Hindoo tribes form a family of dialects mutually akin and widely diffused. Their common source, or rather their most ancient form, is the *Sanscrit* or *Sanskrada*, in which all their ancient books are written. It is said to be remarkably perfect in its structure. From this springs the Cashmerian, which makes the nearest approach to the ancient Sanscrit, and preserves its written characters. The Marashta language, or that of the Mahrattas; the Telinga, which is spoken in Golconda, in Orissa, and on the banks of the Krishna, as far as the mountains of Balaghaut: the Tamul, or Malabaric, which prevails on the shores of the Deccan from Cape Comorin to the north-eastern extremity of the coast of Coromandel, and along the Malabar side to the northern limits of the Concan; and, finally, the Hindostanee, which, next to the Sanscrit and Cashmerian, seems to be the purest Indian language. It is also called the *Nagari* or *Deivanagari*, a term, however, which rather denotes the character in which it is written than the language itself. It is divided into several dialects,

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the purest of which is called *Wradsha*, and is spoken in the neighbourhood of Agra and Mathra. The dialect of central Indostan, mixed with that of the Afghâns, or Patans, and with that of the Mongolian armies, has given birth to the idiom formerly spoken at the Mogul court, and still prevalent among the Mahometans of India. It should be called the Mongol-Hindostanee, but is generally known by the name of the Moorish or Moors' language. The other dialects are those of the Punjâb and of Guzerat, which last is spoken not only in that country but also in the Sinde, at Surat, among the mountains of Balaghaut, of Nepâl, Assam, Bengal, and Balasore, and also extends over the coast of Orissa as far as Coromandel [o].

Amidst the uncertainties which abound in the researches of the learned, the following facts may be considered as established.

The Sanscrit.

The Sanscrit, that dead language in which the most of the sacred books of the Hindoos are written, approaches, both in its roots and its inflexions, to the Zend, the Persian, the Greek, the Latin, and even to the Teutonic or old German, the Gothic, and the Icelandic [p]. These affinities are equally surprising, whether we consider their decided character, or their wide diffusion. The Sanscrit form of the verb is in some parts identical with that of the Latin, in others with the Greek [q]. Roots not found in the German language are common to the Icelandic and the Sanscrit, though separated by a fourth part of the circumference of the globe [r]. The remains of a vocabulary and a grammar common to so many nations, seem to prove, either that they descend from one common source

[o] Adelung's Mithridate, B. I. 183—232.

[p] Wilkins' Sanscrit Grammar. London, 1808. Paul de St. Bartholomé dissert. de antiq. et affin. linguarum Zend. Sanscr. et German. Adelung, p. 149.

[q] E. Schlezel. Sur la langue et la sagesse des Indiens.

[r] Mem. dans les Annal. des Voyages. See also p. 285 of our preceding volume.

now lost, or that, at a remote epoch, the people who spoke them have had mutual ties of friendly and commercial intercourse, which are not easily conceived, yet cannot be denied. The Sanscrit is written with fifty-two letters, for several of which we have no corresponding characters in Europe. It has also thousands of syllabic abbreviations. Harmonious and grave, with a just proportion of consonants and vowels, rich in terms, free and flowing in its pronunciation, possessing numerous conjugations, tenses, cases, and particles, this language may be compared to those which we regard as the most perfect and refined original tongues.

The Pracrit.

The Pracrit, or "softened language," is spoken by the females in the work entitled *Sacontala*, while the men speak the Sanscrit. Under this denomination may be included all the common dialects, of which the learned Colebrook believes he has made out ten distinct and leading varieties, viz. 1. The *Sarasweata*, spoken formerly in the Punjâb, on the banks of a river of that name. 2. The *Canyaculja*, or the dialect of Canoje, the source of the modern Hindi, from which is derived, by a mixture of Arabic, the Hindostanee. 3. The *Gaura*, or dialect of Bengal, of which Gaur was the capital. 4. The *Marthila*, spoken in Tirhut and some adjoining districts, and closely allied to the preceding. 5. The *Utcala*, used in the province of Orissa. 6. The *Tamla* or *Tamul*, the language of Dravira Proper, or the countries south of the Krishna. 7. The *Maharashtra* or *Mahratta*, which, besides various intermixtures, contains words of peculiar and unknown origin. 8. The *Carnata*, spoken in the ancient Carnataca. 9. The *Telinga*, called formerly *Kalinga*, and used in Telingana. And, 10. The *Gurjara*, or dialect of Guzerat[s]. These languages must have belonged to a corresponding number of distinct civilized nations; but the enumeration is

Its dialects.

[s] H. T. Colebrooke on the Sanscrit and Pracrit languages, in the 7th vol. of the Asiatic Researches, p. 10.

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not complete. The *Punjabi* and the *Mathara* are not the only dialects which must be added to the list[t]. The *Maghada* deserves to be particularized as an ancient Indian language, being that of Bahar, the native country of Buddha. The priests of this deified prophet seem to have employed it; and it is undoubtedly the ancient Pali known to the Ceylonese and the Birmans. We must also add the *Païsachi*, which seems identical with the *Apabransha*. This, according to some, is a jargon formed by the poets, and put into the mouths of foreigners; according to others, it is the language of the mountain tribes, whose origin is different from that of the Hindoos, a difference of opinion which can only be settled by some new researches[u].

Division into castes.

The Hindoo nation continues to be divided, as it has been from the most remote antiquity, into four *tchadi*, or what are best known to us by the name of "castes," a Portuguese term, which all the Europeans have adopted to express these classifications. Each has its peculiar privileges, duties, and laws. The more honourable the caste is, the more numerous are the restrictions under which its members are laid, and the prerogatives which it enjoys are the more valuable. The fourth caste has the fewest observances to follow, but it has also the least portion of respect, and is the most limited in its rights. Every individual remains invariably in the caste in which he is born, practises its duties, and is debarred from ever aspiring to a higher, whatever may be his merit or his genius. Cruel are the penalties which await the person who ventures to dispense with the most absurd of the rules laid down by the law of his caste. To this point of honour the Hindoo patiently sacrifices health and life. A Brahmin of Calcutta, while labouring under a severe disease, had himself exposed on the banks of the Ganges,

[t] Edinburgh Review, Vol. IX. p. 292.

[u] Colebrooke, and the Edinburgh Review, *loc. citat.*

where he passed some hours in contemplation and prayer. He waited, motionless, for the tide to advance and bear him into the sacred waves, where a death the most blessed that imagination was able to figure awaited him. A party of English people passed near him in a boat, one of whom, commiserating the situation of a person whom he believed to be falling a victim to some unfortunate accident, took the Brahmin on board the boat, recalled him to animation by administering a cordial, and brought him to Calcutta. His brother Brahmins now pronounced him infamous, degraded from his caste, and unworthy of being spoken to by any Hindoo. It was to no purpose that the Englishman showed by undeniable testimony that the fault was his, and not the Brahmin's, whom he found in a state of utter insensibility. The law of Menu was inflexible; he had received drink and food from a stranger; for this he must be deprived of all his means of subsistence, and condemned to civil death. The English courts of justice devolved his maintenance on the person who had saved his life. Deserted by all his friends, followed every where by demonstrations of contempt and scorn, the unhappy Brahmin dragged out a miserable existence for three years. Seized after this interval with a new attack of disease, he again determined to die by his own hands, a resolution which his now impoverished benefactor did not prevent him from putting in execution.—This anecdote, which is perfectly authentic, delineates the intolerance of the Hindoos in enforcing the laws of caste. These laws are scrupulously enjoined by a code at once civil and religious, which has been in force for thousands of ages, and the rigour of which the Hindoos have never thought of moderating.

Example of the rigidity of caste.

The leading castes, as we have already had occasion to observe, are four: 1. The Brahmins; 2. The Kshatriyas, or soldiers, including the princes and sovereigns, and sometimes called the caste of Rajas, or Rajepootras;

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3. The Vaisyas, consisting of agriculturists and shepherds; and 4. The Sudras, or labourers.

The Brahmins.

Amidst many subdivisions, local refinements or relaxations, uncertain claims, and infractions of the order arising from circumstances, the most certain and universal part of the system is that by which the rank and importance of the caste of Brahmins are maintained. This is the sacred or sacerdotal caste; and its members have maintained an authority more exalted, commanding, and extensive, than the priests of any other people. Their current tradition is, that the Brahmins proceeded from the mouth of the Creator, which is the seat of wisdom.—There are seven subdivisions of the Brahmins, which derive their origin from seven *Rishis*, or penitents, the holiest persons acknowledged by the Hindoos, and who are believed to have occasionally inflicted the effects of their sacred wrath on some of the gods, when guilty of debauchery. These personages are of high antiquity, and mentioned in the Vedas. Their residence was fixed in the retired regions of the north, and hence the Brahmins of the north, who are nearest to the great fountain, are esteemed the noblest. The Brahmins of antiquity were much more secluded than those of modern times, though the latter show a predilection for a life of retirement from the bustle of the world. They have made no alteration in their rules of abstinence, ablutions, and multiplied ceremonies. Their great prerogative is that of being the sole depositaries and expounders of the Vedas, or sacred books. Of these there are in number four, and for each there is a separate order or branch of the Brahmins. They have a story in general circulation, that if a Sudra, or other profane person should ever attempt to read the title of these books, his head would instantly cleave asunder. Yet it is remarkable, that they make an exception in these miraculous effects as applied to Europeans. A Brahmin bold enough to show these sacred volumes to profane eyes would incur the penalty of irretrievable expulsion from his tribe.

The great body of them profess to pay equal veneration to the three parts of the godhead, Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva. But some attach themselves exclusively, or with great preference, to one more than the others. The worship of Vishnu and Siva, in particular, become the objects of partiality with individuals, who form themselves into sects founded on these predilections. The Vishnuvites are called also Namadhari, from bearing in their foreheads the mark called *Nama*, consisting of three perpendicular lines joined by a crossing line at the base, so as to represent a trident. Their clothes are of a deep orange colour. The devotees of Siva are called Lingamites, from wearing the Lingam stuck in the hair, or attached to the arm in a gold or silver tube. The former are notorious for intemperance, and on that account, those of them especially who lead the lives of mendicants, are disliked by the people, while the Lingamites observe great moderation in eating and drinking. The Vishnuvites pay a high veneration to the ape, the bird called garuda, and the capella serpent. Any of them who inadvertently kills one of these animals is obliged to expiate his crime by a ridiculous sacrifice, in which a human victim is pretended to be immolated and brought to life again; the fact is, that a little blood is drawn from a superficial wound in the thigh, inflicted with a knife; the individual lies still, apparently lifeless, till the farce of resuscitation is performed. This is done with immense ceremony, and gives occasion to a great concourse of people, who are feasted on the fine levied from the culprit [s]. A similar punishment is awarded for some other offences.—Sometimes these two sects not only strive to exalt their own divinity, but revile that of their opponents. The Vishnuvites consider the wearing of the Lingam as the most heinous of all sins, while the Sivites maintain that all who bear the Nama shall, when they die, be tormented in hell by a three-pronged fork

Their differences.

Vishnuvites and Sivites.

[s] Abbe J. A. Dubois's Description of the character, manners, and customs of the people of India, p. 54, &c. (English translation.)

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resembling that mark. These sectarian notions are less prevalent, however, among the Brahmins than in the other castes. Vishnuvite Brahmins are only to be found in the provinces which lie to the south of the river Krishna; and they are viewed with contempt by the tolerant Brahmins, who will not admit them to their tables or to their ceremonies, nor will they confer on them any public employments which happen to be at their disposal. These sects are farther split into subdivisions, which dispute warmly on the subjects of their differences, but are ready to unite whenever the general interests of the sect require their protection.

Four states of a Brahmin.

A Brahmin is subject to four different states. The first takes its commencement about the age of seven or nine; when the individual is invested with "the triple cord," a badge which hangs from his left shoulder, previously to which he is not considered as a Brahmin at all.

1. Brachmachari.

The young man thus initiated is called Brachmachari. In this state his duty consists in learning to read and write, in learning the Vedas, and the efficacious forms of prayer called the Mantras; in acquiring other sciences, and abstaining from the use of betel. He uses no ornaments in his hair, bathes daily, and offers the sacrifice called the Homam twice a-day. Subjects so young do not in general observe the rules strictly. A certain proficiency is enjoined in learning the books by heart, but neither in this, nor in the acquisition of the lessons deemed by them scientific, is there much general emulation. They learn afterwards to understand the different privileges belonging to their caste, and, among others, their right to ask alms, which they do not in the style of mendicants, but of confident yet not insolent claimants. Another is exemption from taxes. They are also exempted from capital, and generally from corporal, punishment, however heinous crimes they may commit, imprisonment being the only punishment to which they are liable. They learn all the points of bodily purity which, as good Brahmins, it is neces-

sary to observe through life. Not only are they liable to be considered as polluted by the touch of a dead body, but even by attending at a funeral.

Childbirth and constitutional changes render females impure; and ablutions and forms of prayer are requisite to remove the stain. An earthen vessel, if ever it has been used by a profane person, or applied to any one of a specified number of uses, becomes so polluted that it cannot be used again, and must be broken; metallic vessels admit of purification by washing. Leather, and every kind of skin, except those of the tiger and the antelope, are held to be very impure; hence the boots and gloves of the Europeans are in their eyes the most disagreeable of all objects as articles of dress. A Brahmin must take care, in walking or sitting, that he does not touch a bone, a broken pot, a rag, or a leaf from which any one has eaten. In drinking, they must pour the liquid from above, without touching the vessel with their lips [y]. They must not touch the greater part of animals; the most polluting is the dog. The water which they drink must be carefully drawn, and by no means by any Sudra. If two Brahmins draw water together, their pitchers must not touch one another, otherwise one or both must be broken. They must eat no animal flesh, nor eggs. This is particularly the case with the Lingamites, yet this sect is remarked for great external slovenliness in their habits. The Brahmins are also taught to entertain a horror for defilement of soul, as the consequence of perverseness of the will, or sin; and, though the particulars of which such defilement consists are obscurely explained, the rules for purification by ablution, penances, and ceremonies, are both precise and ample.

The second stage of a Brahmin's life is called that of Grihastha, and takes place when he is married and has children. Mere marriage does not constitute this state, for that ceremony takes place at a very early age, and the

2. Grihastha.

[y] Abbé J. A. Dubois's Description of the Character and Customs of the People of India, p. 112. (English translation.)

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parties remain for some years in the houses of their respective parents.

Marriage.

Marriage is an essential object to a Brahmin, being necessary to any sort of respectability in society. When he becomes a widower, he falls from his station, and is under an urgent necessity of resuming the married state. The case is quite different with widowed females, who are not permitted to marry a second time. There are, however, some hermits or penitents called *Sannyases*, who lead lives of celibacy, and the acting priests, who are called Gurus, also live in a single state, though it is known that their morality in this particular is sufficiently relaxed. There is no such thing now as celibacy adhered to among women from any religious motive; but their ancient books, speaking of the *five celebrated virgins*, intimate, that in former times there were religious nuns. Marriage is conducted in the same manner which we have already described in our account of local manners. The parents fix the alliance which is to be formed, and the wife is purchased by the bridegroom for money. The money given, however, is employed by the father of the lady in the purchase of ornaments for his daughter; and these become the inalienable property of the wife. The father does not give his answer to any young man's offer till one of the small lizards which creep on the wall gives, by one of its chirps, a favourable augury. The ceremony of marriage is operose, and lasts five days. There is a set of functionaries called Parohitas or astrologers, who go through the various ceremonies on this and some other interesting occasions. The gods are propitiated by sacrifices, particularly *Vishneswara*, "the god of obstacles," who is feared on account of the power which he possesses to thwart the plans of human prudence. This image is set up in the *Pandal*, a sort of alcove erected in front of a Brahmin's house. When he takes his wife home, and has children by her, he is now in his second state, that of a Grihastha; his daily duties and ceremonies become more multiplied and more strictly incum-

Duties of a Grihastha.

bent. Every act of his life is to be performed according to certain rules, some of them very foreign to all European notions of propriety. They consider some of our customs as highly abominable, such as that of blowing the nose and stuffing the excreted matter into the pocket. While the act of cleaning the nostrils, and some others considered as conveying an impure stain to the individual, are performed, a Brahmin never omits the ceremony of putting his cord over his right ear, which is supposed to have the virtue of purifying him from corporeal pollution. The cleaning of the teeth is performed with a well chosen piece of wood, fresh cut from the tree; to rub them with brushes made of the hair of animals, is an act of indecorum to which nothing whatever would make him descend. When he bathes, he thinks of the Ganges; and on coming out of the water, salutes each of his fingers and toes, and all the parts of his body in detail. Several regular days of fasting are observed in the course of the year, which amount altogether to a considerable space of time. These, and many other burdensome observances, become so habitual, that nothing galling is felt in submitting to them. They go through them all with cheerfulness, and no innovation in them is ever proposed. Some philosophers among the Hindoos have turned them into ridicule, but even these do not omit them in practice. The Abbé Dubois observes that those authors who have ridiculed them in their writings, were never, so far as he could learn, Brahmins, but generally Sudras. *Vemana*, *Agastya*, *Patanatupulai*, and *Tiruvaluven*, a Pariah, the chief authors of this description, are modern. If any ancient ones wrote in the same strain, their works are not now to be found. Transgressions in practice, however, are secretly indulged in, especially in large towns, where concealment is most easy.—Many of the Brahmins engage in employments which appear incongruous with their general professions. They are usually the political functionaries of the native princes and of the Mahometan governments, which find it convenient to ma-

Corporeal purity.

On scoffers.

Occupations of Brahmins.

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nage the people through their medium. Some of them, particularly in Guzerat, engage in commerce. They often carry messages between distant places, an employment very convenient for them, as the veneration in which they are held prevents any lawless person from molesting them. Sometimes they act as *coolies* or porters, in which character they are exempt from the molestations of the officers of the revenue.—They are certainly an artful set of impostors. The Hindoos are all expert in disguising the truth, but the Brahmins much more so than any other. Flattery is one of their prime resources, which they lavish in the most extravagant manner on any person from whom they have a favour to expect. One of the features which we contemplate with the greatest pleasure, is their toleration in religious opinion. They do not anathematize Mussulmans, Christians, and others, with the decision which generates an impatient spirit of proselytism or of persecution. This is ascribed sometimes to the low estimation in which they hold the objects of their own worship, and, undoubtedly, they sometimes treat the latter with an indifference bordering on contempt, and in their adorations, are influenced by their secular interests rather than by the spirit of devotion, flattering those divinities whose functions they connect with their secular concerns. The distance at which they keep themselves from the Europeans, and their unwillingness to admit them to their temples or their ceremonies, arise from the uncleanness which they attach to the habits of the latter, who, if they would conform a little to their manners and practical prejudices, would experience from all the Hindoos unbounded toleration. It is a very prevalent sentiment among them, that different religions are formed for different nations, and that each serves every purpose to the souls of its believers and professors. The excellent Abbé Dubois, who studied the manners of the Hindoos more carefully than any one who describes them, was, in consequence of the tenderness and respect with which he always treated their habits, often

Subtilty of disposition.

Religious toleration.

invited by the Brahmins, to whom he and his mode of living were known, to enter their temples, and join them in their ceremonies. The Brahmins entertain an unbending spirit of bigotry, however, in their attachment to their civil institutions, considering every thing different from them as worthy of none but barbarians. The Moors they hate for their arrogance, and despise for their ignorance of some physical branches of science known to themselves, such as those which are connected with the construction and explanation of the almanack. They think well of some good qualities of their European masters, such as their humanity in war, the moderation and impartiality of their government, and their other benevolent features; but they soon forget these favourable impressions, when they think of the grossness and hatefulness of some of their prevailing habits. M. Dubois thinks that the latter ought to have denied themselves the use of beef, which is an insipid food in that country, and should not have admitted the detested Pariahs into their domestic service. It would, indeed, be wrong to countenance them in their inhuman treatment of the inferior castes, and of persons who are considered as of no caste; yet regulations might have been adopted by which the gross insult which their present modes imply might have been avoided or mollified, and every humane purpose obtained.

Political bigotry.

The third state of a Brahmin is that of Vana-Prastha, or that of the inhabitants of the desert. This order prevailed at a former period, but it is now scarcely to be found, and appears indeed to be extinct. These were the same persons whom we commonly call penitents. They were honoured by kings, and respected by the gods, who are said to have considered them as a sort of superiors. They observed a number of peculiar rules of self-denial, and practised peculiar sacrifices and religious observances. It was imagined that their pious acts and intentions were often thwarted by giants and even by gods. They were the depositories of some of the sublime doctrines of theo-

3. Vana-Prastha.

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logy, and practised magical incantations. These last are now taken up by other individuals, who, on account of their supposed power, are frequently held in a sort of horror.

4. Sannyasi.

The fourth state of a Brahmin is called Sannyasi, which is reckoned so peculiarly holy, that it imparts in a single generation a greater stock of merits than ten thousand could produce in any other sphere of life. A Sannyasi, when he dies, is believed to pass straightway to the world of Brahma or of Vishnu, exempt from the penalty of being ever re-born on earth, or passing from one body into another. He performs all the rigid rites of the Vana-Prasthas, and in addition, renounces all worldly connections, takes up the profession of mendicity, and lives solely on alms. Before this, however, he must devote several years to the married and paternal state, and thus discharge a debt which he owes to his forefathers. When a Brahmin is qualified and disposed for this state, he is installed in it with many mantras and other ceremonies.—He must now, every morning, rub his whole body all over with ashes; must restrict himself to one meal in the day; give up the use of betel; avoid looking at women; shave his beard and head every month; wear wooden clogs always on his feet; must, in travelling, carry in one hand his seven-knotted bamboo staff, in the other his gourd, and the antelope skin under his arm, these being the three badges of his order. He must erect a hermitage on the bank of a river or a lake. Such is a specimen of his regulations. Contemplation, and a supposed communion with the Deity, amounting, in its highest form, to a participation of a divine nature, are the ulterior duties of this class of devotees. Nothing can exceed the fantastic exercises in which they engage, such as suppressing their breath for as long a time as possible, till they are almost in a swoon, thus bringing on violent perspiration. These efforts are made during the night, and succeeded by endless wanderings of the imagination, to which they blindly attach a superlative value. They

Rules of life.

put themselves in the most irksome and ridiculous postures of body, such as standing long on one leg till it swells and ulcerates; standing also a long time on the head. The act of highest merit among them is "to subdue all sensations, and retain the breath with such determined perseverance, that the soul, quitting the body, bursts through the crown of the head, and flies to re-unite itself with the great Being, or Para-Brahma." The tricks which they perform are endless, but their most extravagant and fatal efforts are said to be confined to former times. The Sannyasis are not, like the Vana-Prasthas, burned when they die, but are interred. This is the case with the Lingamites, or worshippers of Siva; but a Sannyasi, even though during life he has attached himself to the worship of Vishnu, is interred when dead, and the ceremony is pompous and expensive, being done at the expense of some relation or friend, who reckons the act in the foremost rank of good works.

Anomalous devotees.

From the classes of Vana-Prastha and Sannyasi have issued numerous sets of fanatics, such as the Djogis, who exert themselves to please the Deity by strange mutilations of their bodies, braving the force of fire, and the extremity of the seasons; the Panduris, who disseminate little figures of the most indecent description, as subordinate to devotion; the Vairagis, who are a sort of order of monks and nuns, consecrated to the god Krishna and his mistress Rada, whose history they celebrate with songs, accompanied by the noise of cymbals. It is said that some, even of the Brahmins, under the name of Pashandia and the Sarwagina, maintain opinions completely libertine and atheistical.—To some respectable travellers, it appears, on the whole, that the number of persons of the Brahminical caste who are respectable for their knowledge and their virtues is very small, while the great body of these hereditary priests and sages are completely devoted to ambition, intrigue, and voluptuousness,—their character being disgraced by an avarice, a meanness, and a cruelty, which inspire a stranger with no sentiments towards them but those

Infidels.

General character of the Brahmins.

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of contempt[z]. The charity which they hold so high in the list of duties and of virtues, has no human beings except Brahmins for its objects. Towards the other castes they cherish no feeling of humanity, but claim every thing from them, while they give them nothing.

Caste of Kshatriyas.

The caste immediately beneath the Brahminical is that of the Kshatriyas, or the military class. They are also called Rajepoots, from being the descendants of rajas or princes. Encroachments, however, seem to have been early made on the prerogatives of this class; the military profession being embraced by inferior castes, according as necessity obliged the governments to employ them, or lawless propensities led individuals to lead lives of habitual violence, till they became established in the military profession by the success of their insurrections or incursions. The Rajepoots are now rather a tribe than a caste. They claim, and generally receive, a greater degree of respect than other warriors. In this tribe, as in the military body in general, the feebleness and insignificance of the Hindoo give place to a ferocious courage, a savage ambition, and an insatiable avarice, rarely compensated by any real virtues, or even by that generosity of conduct which so frequently accompanies the military character among Europeans.

Caste of Vaisyas.

The Vaisyas are the third caste of the Hindoos. Their duties consist in the labours of the field and the garden, the breeding of cattle, and the sale of landed produce. When these Vaisyas travel to other countries in mercantile pursuits, they go under the name of Banyans. They are privileged with exemption from military duty; but since the Indian princes have been in the practice of maintaining mercenary troops, many of this caste have become soldiers. It is of them that the Mahrattas in general consist. They are bound to pay the profoundest respect to Brahmins and to Kshatriyas, but they receive the same awful submission from the caste next to be described.

[z] Solvyns on the Hindoos. Lord Valentia's Travels.

This is the fourth and most numerous of any, and is called the Kshoodra, or Sudra caste. The business of this caste is servile labour, and wherever the original spirit of the institution has not been infringed on by a train of political accidents, their degradation is inhuman. They are compelled to work for the Brahmins, being considered as created solely for their use. They are not, by the laws of Menu, allowed to collect property, "because such a spectacle would give pain to the Brahmins." To them the Vedas must never be read, nor spiritual counsel given; and whoever shall dare to instruct them in the mode of expiating sin, is doomed to sink with them into Asamvrita, one of the hells with which the world of spirits is provided.

Caste of Sudras.

Any one of the three higher castes, though possessing their separate spheres of occupation, is allowed occasionally, and under circumstances of necessity, to engage in the employments which belong to the inferior castes; but the latter are in no case permitted to interfere with those of the superior. Hence in times of distress, the Sudras are subjected to peculiar sufferings from being thrown out of employment by swarms of interlopers from all the other castes, while to them no corresponding resource, either then or at any other time, is open.

In consequence of irregular intermarriages occurring among the different castes, children were born who belonged to no caste, and for whom there was no employment. These were called Burren Sunker. They lived either on charity, or by plunder, and acquired a savage and lawless character. For them different new arts and manufactures were ultimately contrived, by which, from being the pests of the community, they were converted to its service. Thirty-six branches of this impure class are specified in the sacred books [a], differing in the elements of their spurious origin, and in the degrees of humiliation

Mixed castes.

[a] Colebrooke on the Indian Classes, Asiat. Researches, Vol. V. p. 53.

BOOK L.

attached to the labours respectively assigned to them. All of them are obliged to keep at a great distance from the rest of society.

Various circumstances, however, have in different places produced more or less intermixture and encroachment of the castes on one another. Hence the purity which they claim is not always conceded to them by others who pass under the same name. Many of those who occupy the place of the higher castes, with the exception of the Brahminical, are by birth entitled to no higher rank than that of Sudras.

The Pariahs.

But beneath these, and beneath even the Burren Sunker, there is a race of most degraded and universally insulted outcasts, called Pariahs, whom we have more than once had occasion to mention. In many places, their very approach is sufficient to pollute a whole neighbourhood. They must not enter a street where the Brahmins live. When they transgress, the higher castes will not assault them, for it is pollution even to touch them with a long pole; but through the medium of others, they beat them at pleasure, and have often put them to death without dispute or inquiry. The degree of this detestation in which the Pariahs are held is greatest in the southern parts of the peninsula. The Europeans, however, are under the necessity of employing them as domestic servants, as a great part of their work could not be done by persons of any other caste; such as the cooking of beef, the pulling off and cleaning of boots. This arrangement is attended with the disadvantage of preventing individuals of reputable character from engaging in the service of a European, for fear of being confounded with the Pariahs. They act as scavengers; they have the care of distributing the waters of the tanks over the fields. Some have the charge of domestic animals. Of late they have been occasionally admitted into the European and Indian armies, where they have given considerable satisfaction to their masters. They are not inferior to the other Hindoos in

courage, but cannot without great difficulty be subjected to military discipline, and are abandoned to all sorts of vice and irregularity. They are as coarse and sensual as the Brahmins are refined and knavish. Their features are harsh and rugged, their manners gross. They get drunk on the juice of the palm when it is in a state which gives them a most offensive odour. They engage in frequent quarrels, treat their wives with cruelty, often beating them brutally even in a state of pregnancy. They feast on any rotten carcase that falls in their way. In order that a race so abominable may be deprived of every chance of conveying contamination to their superiors, they are obliged to have their wells surrounded with the bones of animals, to warn others against making use of the same water.

Other outcasts.

Besides the Pariahs, who are spread over all the provinces, there are other local outcasts, some of whom are still more debased. Such are the Pallis of Madura, and the Pulias in the mountainous parts of Malabar, who are not permitted to erect houses, are obliged to live in open sheds supported by bamboo pillars, and dare not even walk along the common road for fear of defiling it.

The shoemakers are every where held inferior to the Pariahs, and are in reality of a grosser character, and more destitute of honour. Players on wind instruments, and all sorts of vagrants, are also despised and hated as a portion of the infamous dregs of Hindoo society [b].

Hindoo religion.

The religion of the Hindoos is so intricate and cumbrous in its legends, and so inconsistent in its doctrines, as to defy the powers of analysis; and for the same reason, it becomes too absurd to merit much interest, except as a conspicuous monument of the weakness of the human understanding, and a leading political engine in full operation. From some detached expressions in their writ-

[b] See Abbé Dubois's "Description of the People of India," p. 454—476. (English translation.)

BOOK I.

The trimurti.

Idolatry.

ings, apparently mystical and sublime, the Brahminical religion has been supposed to be originally founded on just and elevated views of divine power.—We have already mentioned the Trimurti, or Indian trinity, consisting of Brahma, the creator; Vishnu, the preserver; and Siva, the destroyer. Some have been impressed with sentiments of respect for the views thus unfolded, though imperfect, and corrupted. They have even been considered as participating of doctrines bearing a relation to the catholic theology. But when we enter more largely into the Hindoo mythology, we find that this trimurti is not eternal, but sprung from a female, who is known by a name signifying "the original power." We find the trimurti engaged in shameful amours, subjected to humiliation and disgrace, and restored to its dignity by the good nature of a virtuous female, who had punished it for an unsuccessful attempt at seduction. The trimurti is introduced into the first pages of the Eddo of Snorro.—The perpetuity of manners, as well as of ideas in India, is strikingly exemplified in their adherence to the same sacred emblems by which their views were originally represented. Hence we see the strange figures with four heads, and eight arms; the frightful visages, the monsters which tear men in pieces, and all the horrid and disgusting oddities which characterize the representations of the Indian deities. What a shocking contrast to the graceful conceptions of the Grecian imagination! They shew that the system existed previously to the formation of a correct or elegant taste: but they are not on that account as some have alleged, conclusive, or independent proofs of its high antiquity. In some instances we must allow that these symbols are sufficiently expressive. Vishnu, the preserving principle, holds in one hand a leaf of the lotos, which is an aquatic plant, to show that every thing is sprung from the sea. The horn which he holds in another hand denotes his creative voice, which is capable of animating the chaotic void. The club in a third, indicates his power to pu-

nish and destroy the wicked. The wheel in a fourth, is the symbol of the eternal circle of life and creation. The triple crown on his head, teaches that he reigns over the sea, the earth, and the sky.

Brahma and Vishnu.

The god Brahma is described as a much more scandalous character than even the Jupiter of the Greeks[c]. Vishnu, the redeemer or preserver, has, in order to execute his incumbent offices, been obliged to appear in different earthly forms, called *avataras*, of which ten are enumerated. First, he was transformed into a fish; second, into a tortoise; third, into a boar; fourth, into a monster, half man and half lion; fifth, into a dwarf Brahmin; sixth, into the god called Paraswârâma; seventh, into the hero Rama; eighth, into the god Krishna; ninth, into the tree ravi, or aruli. This is the last which has taken place; but another is yet expected, to which the Hindoos look forward with the same ardour as the Jews to the coming of the Messiah. This is a transformation into a horse. The books do not assign the period of its arrival, nor explain by what means it will be brought about; but the Hindoos trust that it will restore the Satya-yuga, or the age of happiness. Each of these avataras is the subject of a curious but monstrous fable[d].

Siva.

The god Siva, who is chiefly characterized as the destroying power, is generally represented under a shape so contrived as to inspire terror, with large impassioned eyes, his ears decked with serpents, his hair plaited and curled in an extraordinary manner, and holding the weapon called *sula* in his hand. His amours, and his battles with the giants and tyrants of the earth, in which the four Vedas or sacred books were his horses, the mountain Mandara Parvata his bow, and Vishnu his arrow, and who, in order to prepare for battle, cut the world in twain, and took one half of it for his armour, are related in the book called

[c] A specimen of his nefarious conduct is given by Dubois, p. 429, 430.

[d] Dubois, ibid. See also an excellent account of this, and other parts of the Hindoo mythology, in Murray's Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Asia, vol. II. p. 251, &c.

BOOK I. the Bhagavata, which in fame is next to the Ramayana. In order to obtain a wife, he subjected himself to a long and austere penitence, and thus prevailed on the mountain Parvata to give him his daughter Parvati in marriage. The origin of the worship of the Lingam is connected with a ridiculous passage in the story of this god's debaucheries. The Bhagavata is a book of matchless obscenity; yet it is the delight of the Hindoos, and the first which they put into their children's hands, when learning to read. Vigh-neswara, the god of obstacles, derived his birth from the excrement of Parvati, and his head being cut off by some malignant deity, was replaced with the head of an elephant by the power of his father Siva.

Worship of animals. The Hindoos are more extravagant than even the ancient Egyptians in the worship of animals, as they make almost every living creature the object of devotion, although some species excel the others in the interest which they excite. Such are the cow, the ox, the ape, the serpent capella, and a bird of prey called garuda. They worship also a variety of malignant demons under the name of Bhuta.

Transmigration. The doctrine of the transmigration of souls from one body into another, is an essential dogma of the Brahminical faith, and from this source the Grecian philosopher Pythagoras undoubtedly derived it. It was under this belief that Pythagoras prohibited his disciples from eating the flesh of animals, as implying cannibalism, or even the devouring of one's own ancestors; and for the same reason the Hindoos deem it sinful to put any animal to death, except when offered in sacrifice; but it is well known that in this, as in many other particulars, their practices are inconsistent, and that they have among them both butchers and hunters by profession. The Hindoos recognise two leading causes of transmigration; one is for the punishment of transgression, and the reward of virtue, by sending the wicked into the bodies of Pariahs, or of mean and wretched animals, and those of the righteous into bodies of the happiest and most dignified kind. The other

is for the purpose of removing the impurities implied in particular generations, which can only be done by many more transmigrations, if, instead of purifying themselves from old stains, they contract new ones by a dissolute life.

The hell of the Hindoos.

They maintain the existence of a hell, in which, as in that of the Greeks, some whimsical punishments are awarded, such as plunging the guilty souls several times a-day in a lake of mucus. The retributions of that hell are long and severe, but not eternal. They are supposed to be succeeded by a universal restoration of the world.

Ceremonies.

We have already found that some of the ceremonies of the Brahminical worship are horrible in the extreme, such as the worship of Vishnu, under the name of Juggernaut*. Some of them are more tumultuous and licentious than the worship of Bacchus himself, and accompanied with prostrations before the most immodest figures exhibited as sacred emblems. Ablutions and purifications form a leading part of Brahminical devotion. The images of the gods are purified by bathing them in the rivers, or the sacred tanks. Fire is held in religious veneration, and receives frequent offerings of butter thrown into it. Every Brahmin cherishes a sacred fire. The sacrifices chiefly consist of vegetable substances, but animals also are often immolated, and in the last century the popular superstition which authorizes human sacrifices in extreme cases was countenanced by some ignorant Brahmins. The burning of widows is a relic of these horrid sacrifices, and still, in epidemic diseases and other public calamities, it sometimes happens that Brahmins are sufficiently foolish and sufficiently disinterested to throw themselves from the top of a tower, in order to propitiate the mercy of a divine being in favour of their contemporaries.

Human sacrifices.

Birth.

An infant, as soon as it enters the world, becomes a subject of religious ceremony. The Brahmins give it a name,

* See page 149 of this volume.

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and fix, by the study of the stars, its future destinies. The Hindoo marriages are celebrated with much ceremony. A piece of cloth is held extended over the pair while the priest implores the blessing of heaven on their union. Promises of unalterable fidelity, written on palm leaves, are mutually exchanged.

Marriages.

Funerals.

The funerals are accompanied by some curious observances. A dying Brahmin is laid in the open air on a bed of cusa grass, is sprinkled over with the holy water of the Ganges, and verses of the Vedas are chaunted over him. When his breath is gone, the body is washed, perfumed, and crowned with flowers. The funeral pile is lighted with a match from the sacred fire, by which the body is purified and fitted for ascending into heaven. The following are some of the verses chaunted on such occasions:

"It is folly to expect any thing permanent in the lot of man, which is empty like the trunk of the banana, fleeting like the froth of the sea."

"To receive the due recompense of its actions, the human body, composed of five elements, returns to its native principles; and what occasion have we for lamentation?"

"The earth perishes, the sea, and even the gods, pass away; yet vain man aspires at immortality."

"Whatever is low must disappear, whatever is high must fall. Every compound being must be dissolved, and life must end in death."

The relations of the deceased collect the ashes, which are put up into a parcel with the leaves of the *Butea frondosa*, are first consigned to the earth, and, after a time, thrown into the Ganges with a new set of ceremonies. Sacrifices of cakes are offered to the manes of the three nearest progenitors by the father's and the mother's side.

Temples.

The building of temples is reckoned an act of great merit among the Hindoos. Elevated grounds are the situations chosen for these buildings. Most of them are miserable structures, resembling ovens rather than places of

worship. Some of them are used as courts of justice, and choultries for travellers, as well as temples. The larger temples, or pagodas, however, sometimes exhibit a magnificent architecture. Their form is always the same. The gate of entrance is cut through a huge pyramid fronting the east. In those of the first order there is a large court beyond the pyramid; at the end of this a second gate, cut through another massy pyramid less lofty than the first, leading to another court, at the end of which stands the temple for the residence of the idol. In the middle of the second court a figure is placed in a niche or on a pedestal. This is a cow, a bull, a lingam, a serpent, or some other object of worship, to which some mark of reverence is paid by all the votaries who visit the place. They are now admitted into the temple by a low narrow door, which is the only entrance for air and light. The interior is divided into two or three apartments, all on a level. But here the air is polluted and noxious in the highest degree, from the smell of burning lamps, and the effluvia of decayed flowers, as well as the repeated respirations of the worshippers. To unpractised persons, the horrid filth in which the divinities are kept is extremely disgusting. Here are the ugly and monstrous productions of a wretched art, before which the poor superstitious Hindoo prostrates both body and soul. Numerous figures are set up, both within the temple and around it, many of them clothed in splendid garments, and decked with precious jewellery, which heighten their grotesque and horrific aspect. In the best endowed institutions of this kind, numerous persons are maintained in an official capacity. The first in rank are the sacrificers, whose duties are numerous and daily. Next in importance are the Devadassi or handmaids of the gods; they have the charge of the sacred lamps, and generally are concubines to the Brahmins, and, in fact, low and abandoned in their morals. They dance and sing to the impure songs in which the licentious actions of their gods are celebrated. These per-

Their attendants.

BOOK L

sons are sometimes dedicated to this life by their parents, and are not considered as reflecting any disgrace on the family to which they belong. They are the only females who learn to read, to sing, and to dance. Such accomplishments are held in abhorrence by all the virtuous matrons of India. These women use the same arts, by means of dress and manners, which are employed by common women in other parts of the world, but without the glaring impudence which is practised in many parts of Europe. To the temples are also attached bands of musicians, who play with a kind of clarionets, cymbals, and drums. On the authority of the Abbé Dubois, we must believe that in some of these temples, scenes of indiscriminate debauchery are practised. Accounts of such scenes, even when described as existing among the nations of antiquity, have been rejected with scorn by the sceptical critics of modern times. Yet they are now in full operation in India. One temple of this kind is at Junjinagati, a desert place on the banks of the Cavery; another near the village of Kari-madai, in the province of Coimbatoor[f], and another at Tirupati, in the north of the Carnatic. A sort of vows common among the devotees is that of suffering corporal mutilation or tortures. Some of these are described by Dubois, and would appear quite incredible, if not supported by testimony so respectable[g].

Buddhists, Jains, &c.

After the particulars which have come in our way on former occasions, there is little to be stated on the subject of the dissenting religions in India, such as that of the Buddhists and the Jains. The latter follow similar doctrines to the Buddhists, but differ from them in allowing the Hindoo division of the community into castes.

Mahometanism, as we have found, has many followers, and in some places gains proselytes. Judaism and Christianity have not made much progress. This is ascribed to the conduct of the missionaries, which has been too of-

[f] Dubois's Description, &c. p. 109, &c. [g] Idem, p. 413, &c.

ten impolitic and harsh, so as to inflame rather than conciliate the minds of the Pagans. BOOK I.

The temples, palaces, and pyramids found in various parts of India are considered as proofs of a former state of greater civilization among this people than now exists; but these remains only shew that some individuals had sufficient riches, or sufficient power to command an enormous expenditure of human labour, and sufficient ambition to project monuments which promised, by their magnitude, to subsist for many ages. Good taste is an ingredient rarely if ever found, and far less proof is there that civilization, in this particular, was ever prevalent in the community at large. Architecture.

The sciences were cultivated in very early times by the Hindoos, the Brahmins being the only depositaries of knowledge. Besides the false sciences of astrology and magic, by means of which they impose on the ignorant, they also possessed some sound mathematical and astronomical knowledge, and were acquainted with some processes of algebraical calculation, which implied considerable patience and study. It is uncertain, however, in what degree these were original, and to what extent they were imported from Western Asia. These points are subjects of controversy among the learned: yet there is something creditable in having made them objects of attention. Some Hindoo books of algebra and arithmetic have been published in European translations; which consist rather in the adoption of such abridged methods as are found to give true results, than in the unfolding of scientific principles. Science.

The literature of the Hindoos consists chiefly of poetry. All their ancient books are in verse. Even their books on medicine are not excepted. Not only the works in the original Sanscrit, but also the translations of them into modern Indian dialects, are executed in poetry. They have their verses arranged variously in feet, composed, like those of the Greek and Latin, of specific intermixtures of long Literature.

BOOK I.

and short syllables. Their rhyme is of the nature of alliterations, falling sometimes on the first letter or syllable of a line, sometimes on the second. The poetical expression errs in the extreme of loftiness, and is obscured by quaint phrases and perpetual allegories. Their descriptions are tediously long and minute, the likenesses being never drawn with a single stroke in the approved style of the ancient and modern classics of Europe. Their epic poems relate to the exploits of their gods and heroes, which are far more stupendous than any that we are accustomed to read with interest, being conformed to that extravagant taste in miracles which characterizes the genius of the Hindoo religion. One of the most interesting productions is the dramatic piece called Sacontala, which has been translated and read through all Europe, yet is characterized by a sufficient portion of Hindoo extravagance. The fables of Pilpai or Bidpai are by some thought to be the foundation of those of Esop and of Lokman. Such fables may be considered as a very natural mode of writing among a people who believe that the souls of men pass into the bodies of animals.

Mode of writing.

The epistolary style of the Brahmins is solemn and complimentary, beginning with the name of the writer and that of the person addressed, followed by a string of compliments, and concluding with business. No respects or compliments are ever sent to wives. Any thing of that kind would be considered ridiculous and rude. When notice of a death is communicated, the custom is to singe a little the point of the palm leaf on which the news is

Characters.

written. Though the different Indian dialects are closely akin, they are written in very different characters. They also differ in the form of their arithmetical cyphers, though they all follow the decimal series. The Telinga notation corresponds almost exactly with that which was communicated to Europe by the Arabs at the end of the tenth century, and which we now universally use for calculation. The Tamul notation rather resembles that of the Romans, consisting of letters of their own alphabet, and denoting

ten, a hundred, and a thousand, by single letters. They have a paper made of the bark of a particular plant, (not of cotton, as has been supposed,) but they generally use the leaves of the latanier palm. Their writing, in the first instance, consists of mere scratching with an iron point, while the leaf is supported on the middle finger of the left hand. The right or writing hand is not moved along the leaf, as with us, but the leaf is from time to time pushed to the left with the iron point stuck in the letter last formed. In this manner the process is conducted with great facility, and a Hindoo is often seen writing as he walks along. The leaf is afterwards covered over with a black substance, which adheres to the written lines, and renders them more distinct.

Indolence.

It is only in a very few mechanical arts that the Hindoos make any figure. Indulging in their natural indolence, they have scarcely any want but that of ease. Moderate and sober, a simple piece of linen or cotton stuff suffices them for clothing; their dwellings are the slightest and simplest that can be imagined; their support consists of rice and water; little trouble is required to satisfy their few wants. Yet some rich individuals, habituated to the conveniencies of life, display in their houses all the luxury of the east. We find the persons of the Rajas and the Nabobs surrounded by numerous slaves; their garments glittering with gold, silver, and embroidery; their apartments adorned with painting and gilding, and perfumed with various valuable essences. Their wives participate in the taste of their husbands, and pass their lives in utter inactivity. The zenanas are the abodes of voluptuous repose, where pure water falls in cascades, or displays its refreshing surface on broad marble basins. The richest tapestry is used for covering their floors, adorning their walls, and lining their doors[h]. We find that in the time of Alexander, the Indian beauties made use of a rich

Luxury of the women.

[h] Valentyn's Engraving of the Zenana of Nourmahal. See also a plate in Mr. Hodge's Travels, p. 21.

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profusion of pearls, diamonds, sapphires, and rubies[j]. Even to the nose and the feet were hung rings which tinkled at every motion, to which splendid embellishments was added the sweeter charm of thousands of fair flowers and odoriferous plants[k]. A variety of paints constituted, from a remote antiquity, a conspicuous article in Indian coquetry.

Miscellaneous customs.

All classes of society among the Hindoos are in the habit of smoking tobacco and chewing betel,—acts as essential with them as eating and drinking. In all the houses of persons in good circumstances there are terraces or flat roofs, where a part of the day is spent in smoking. In travelling, they use different sorts of palanquins, which are often adorned in a most luxurious style, a mode of travelling well suited to a country where there are few roads practicable for carriages[l].

Summary of the Hindoo character.

The Hindoo character is a strange mixture of strength and weakness, of ferocity and of gentleness. This portion of the human race has, without passing through the various steps of a free civilization, been enslaved, refined, and degraded, by a political system which is both a theocracy and a despotism. Here the man who sacrifices life to the observance of an absurd law of caste, never has the daring to raise the arm of self-defence or of vengeance against the oppressors of his person and country. He gives all the extent of his protection to a sacred cow, but sees without emotion his nation consigned to be massacred. We have seen what an extreme degree of self-abasement, mortification, voluntary torture, and self-sacrifice, the spirit of religious system has generated in this singular race. Even the females are scarcely behind in the intrepidity with which they brave a voluntary death, in one of its most dreadful forms. Dressed in her gayest attire, the

[j] Q. Curtius, VIII. ch. 9.

[k] Gita-Govinda, p. 357—359. Sacontala, p. 147. (German translation.)

[l] Solvyns, les Indous, Tome III.

Indian widow walks forward triumphantly to the sound of music, to place herself on the flaming pile which consumes the dead body of her husband. A sacred joy sparkles in the eyes of her attending children, while they contemplate the heavenly happiness and never-ending glory to which their mother's self-devotion conducts her. "Will you not," says the European, "entreat your mother to preserve her life for the sake of the young offspring whom she renders helpless orphans?" "Nay," says the youth, "she must not so disgrace herself. Should my mother hesitate for a moment, I would encourage, I would urge her to the utmost, to complete the sacrifice which religion and honour demand [m]." It is not the dread of future punishment, but the hope of additional bliss, that forms the inspiring motive of such acts. But even when no sublime objects of either kind are presented to the mind, we have found some denominations among this strange people devoting their lives to a mere point of high moral principle and honour, or to an object of benevolence [n]. Their political feelings seem to be deadened by total despair, generating resignation and contentment. Perhaps it is only where they conceive the object which they aim at to be of certain attainment that they are capable of acting the hero; but in cases in which a risk of ultimate disappointment stares them in the face, they do not know how to muster courage for exertion. They are averse to that state of mind which implies turbulence, or even vigilance, though willing to surmount one obstacle, however much against their first feelings, or to submit to a train of passive sufferings, the nature of which is known and foreseen, and the ability to bear which is habitually cultivated. In one point of view, they furnish a conspicuous example of the plasticity of human nature, which admits of being moulded into a form so fantastic. In another, they exemplify the obstinacy of long habits, hereditary opinions,

[m] Bombay Courier, April, 1811.

[n] See p. 61 and 291 of this volume.

BOOK I. manners, and institutions, and the necessity of a very profound and well-directed policy for any political or philanthropic speculators who propose to govern them well, to meliorate their condition, or to improve their character. In this point of view, all the historical facts arising from their intercourse with other people, and the instances of success and of failure in all negociations and projects of which they have been the objects, furnish interesting practical instruction.

Trade and industry. Although the Hindoos might have carried on a splendid commerce by conveying to other nations the rich productions of their soil, they have always remained faithful to that law which forbids them to leave their native country. Hence other nations, with whom these productions were in demand, have been obliged to conduct the whole trade which the wealth of India offered. This circumstance has prevented the commerce of the Hindoos from reaching its due extent. Yet it has in every age existed in great activity. The Hindoos have been long acquainted with bills of exchange, and with the use of coin [o]. In all the Indian states, pieces of silver are coined into rupees, which become the standard to which other coins are referred. "The rupee," says Legoux de Flaix, "may be considered as the Indostan crown, (ecu;) it has nearly the value of that piece, (about two shillings, or half-a-crown English.) There are likewise gold rupees and gold pagodas, worth about eight or nine shillings each. The lowest circulating medium consists of cowrie shells, of which fifty make a *poni*, ten ponis a *fanon*, and thirteen fanons a *pagoda*. Large sums are reckoned by the *lak*, which is a sum of 100,000 rupees, or 100,000 pagodas,—the one or the other being always specified when the term lak is employed. The European coins are also now current in that country, particularly the dollar, the Louis, and the crown."

Products of industry. The productions of Indian industry form a leading object of trade between India and Europe. The Indian

[o] Legoux de Flaix, Essai, v. I. p. 210.

stuffs, in a particular manner, are in request among the European nations, both for their durableness and beauty. Even in the days of Job we find that they had great celebrity [p]. In the language of trade, pieces of Indian stuff have received the name of guinea goods or guineas. It is in the north part of the Coromandel coast that we find the most extensive manufactures of these articles. The blue kinds are exported to Africa. The *perkals*, so called from a Tamul word signifying "superfine," are made in the Carnatic, of a long silky cotton, which is particularly abundant in the plain of Arcot [q]. There is another description of white goods, called salampoori, got from Ceylon, made of the cotton of Malealama and the Carnatic. The district of Condaver furnishes the beautiful handkerchiefs of Masulipatam, the fine colours of which are partly obtained from a plant called *chage*, which grows on the banks of the Krishna, and on the coast of the Bay of Bengal [r]. The handkerchiefs of Paliamcotta, more diversified in their designs as well as in their colours than those of Masulipatam, are exported in great quantities to America and Africa, where they are used for female dress. It is at Masulipatam, Madras, and St. Thomé, that the printed cottons or *chites*, improperly called Persian calicoes, are made. Their superiority has been ascribed to the good quality of the water in these particular places; but, since the Europeans have succeeded in imitating the Indian processes, the exportation has been considerably diminished. The long and broad webs covered with strange designs, and intended for bed-covers, are exported in great quantities to the Levant and the colonies. On the coast of Coromandel, a striped muslin is made, called *dorea*, and in the Tamul language *betille*, quantities of which are exported by the caravans to Persia, Arabia, and the Levant. Very little of it goes to Europe, where the fabric is skilfully imitated. The case is

[p] Job xxviii. [q] Legoux de Flaix, II. p. 24. [r] Ibid. p. 53.

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different with another stuff called *organdi*, which is made in the Carnatic, and much esteemed in Europe. The basins, or basinets, come from the Northern Circars, and the ginghams from Madras, St. Thomé, and Paliamcotta. The latter are no longer exported in considerable quantity, except to the other countries of Asia, where they are much used for clothing. Surat produces silks sewed with gold and silver thread, which are sent to Persia, Thibet, and China, where they are preferred to those of Lyons for their lightness. Cashmere furnishes its shawls and woollens. In the country of Dacca, the neusooks are made, a species of cotton stuff of great fineness and transparency. The Bengal cotton goods which go under the names of *casses*, *amâns*, and *garats*, have been exported in considerable quantity by the English; also the handkerchiefs called Burgoses and Steinkirkes. It is, says M. Legoux de Flaix, by the combination and the happy mixtures of different kinds of cotton, adapted, by their strength, flexibility, and other qualities, to the fabric of different muslins, and by the experiments and observations of their ancestors, transmitted from father to son, that the Hindoos have brought the arts which depend on dexterity of hand to a degree of perfection from which we are still far removed. Much is also to be attributed to the physical constitution and the patient habits of the people. Though deficient in muscular energy, they have a delicacy, flexibility, and docility of hands, which enable them to succeed admirably in the finer sorts of manufactures, with looms and tools of a rude construction.

Dyes.

The English have greatly extended the plantations of indigo in Bengal. The best, however, is from Agra. It is exported to Europe, Persia, and Arabia. Through the exertions of the English East India Company, the production of cochineal has also been so much extended over the Coromandel coast, as to form at this time a branch of commerce. The sapan or red dye-wood is produced in great quantity in the eastern Ghauts, and is exported to Europe.

Gum lac is furnished by several provinces of Indostan, especially Lahore, the Punjab, and Mooltan, where it is of the best quality. Legoux de Flaix states, that by the Ganges alone this article is exported to the amount of three millions of livres[s]. Sandal wood, which grows abundantly on the Ghauts and between the two ranges of these mountains, becomes an object of commerce in different forms; in blocks and planks for making small pieces of furniture; in powder for burning with incense; and in chips for dyeing. The Hindoos also extract from it a valuable essence, to which they ascribe salubrious virtues. At Mangalore, and several of the larger towns on the Malabar coast, there are extensive stores of sandal wood for exportation to Europe and different parts of Asia. China, in particular, consumes a great quantity of it. About sixteen quintals are sent annually to China by the English Company.

Plants used in manufacture.

Cotton is cultivated in almost every part of India. The finest grows in the light rocky soil of Guzerat, Bengal, Oude, and Agra. The cultivation of this plant is very lucrative, an acre producing about nine quintals of cotton in the year[t]. The cotton of Guzerat is bought by the Chinese for the manufacture of nankeens. The English have paid great attention to the culture of silk, which is obtained from different provinces of India. The best is that of Cossimbazar, an island formed by the Ganges, as already described[u], and which alone yields 2000 quintals. A great part of the silk of India is employed in the manufactures of the country; the remainder is exported to Europe, and to the ports of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. In the northern parts of Indostan there is a particular kind of worm, which produces a coarser and stronger silk than that of the common silk worm. Among the manufactures of Bengal is a kind of thin gauze, much employed for musquito curtains; these are thrown in one

[s] Legoux de Flaix, II. p. 404.

[t] Ibid. II. p. 175.

[u] See page 111 of this volume.

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piece over the bed frames during the night, to exclude these troublesome insects, while they do not confine the air in the same manner as closer fabrics would do.

Commerce in eatables.

The Malabar coast derives a large income from the culture of pepper, which is exported to the extent of 120,000 quintals in the year. The principal pepper marts are Calicut, Mahé, Mangalore, Cochin, and other towns on that coast. Another aromatic, cardamom, which grows with much luxuriance in the western Ghauts, is bought in great quantities by the Persians, the Arabs, the Chinese, the Japanese, and other Asiatics, who make much use of it for giving a higher zest to their betel. The Company enjoys an exclusive monopoly in the trade of opium, the finest of which comes from the province of Bahar. The same is nearly the case with saltpetre, in which India abounds, and of which the district of Patna alone yields 600,000 quintals annually. The sharks on the coast of Malabar are, like those of the Maldives already mentioned, fished for the sake of the fins for the Chinese market[x]. These exports to foreign countries are productive of an immense influx of money to India.

At present the import trade is entirely in the hands of the English, consisting of cloths, velvet, iron, copper, lead, fire arms, wine, spirits, lace, gold embroidery, coral, and fruit dried and preserved. From Ceylon there is an importation of palm wood, areca nuts, and cinnamon; of spices from the Molucca islands; teak wood from Pegu; coffee, incense, corals, and dates from Arabia. The European vessels bring a large quantity of tea from China. The coast of Africa sends cargoes of shells, which are in great request among the Hindoos as an article of ornamental dress[y].

Monopoly of the English Company.

Recently the Indian trade has become a subject of considerable interest in Great Britain, particularly in relation

[x] See page 263.

[y] For a more detailed view of this subject see the work entitled Manuel du Commerce de l' Inde, par M. Blancard, negociant de Marseille.

to the exclusive privileges enjoyed by the East India Company, to the prejudice of other British merchants. It has been particularly complained that the latter were prohibited from engaging in certain branches of trade which were freely allowed to the vessels of America and other nations, such as the liberty of conducting the trade between India and other nations not English. It appears altogether incredible that so unmeaning a sacrifice of national profit should ever have been made, a sacrifice more senseless than the self-immolations of the Hindoos, because they are without any assignable motive. In the last renewal of the charter given to the Company by government, the privileges of British subjects have been considerably extended. This object was the more easily effected, as the trade was found to yield little or no profit to the Company. Indeed the China trade was the only source of their commercial profit. Here, therefore, the monopoly has been continued. It has, by some, been considered as conducive to a more orderly and safe intercourse between two nations so different from one another in their manners and ideas as the English and the Chinese, and so liable to fall into serious disputes arising from the imprudence or ignorance of individuals, most especially when the latter are not under due responsibility and control. Commerce, however, is always conducted in a much more expensive manner by such a Company than by private adventurers, and branches of trade which are a losing concern to the former are sufficiently lucrative to the latter. Hence, since the year 1815, the trade between Great Britain and India has been materially improved, and the cotton manufactures of England have been introduced into Asia to an extent which was not anticipated. The results of these modern changes of arrangement have been such as to generate a strong sentiment in England in favour of a still freer system of trade, by the removal of many or most of the restrictions which now exist. Much information has been laid before the public by the parliamentary inquiries which this question

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has elicited. The Report from the House of Lords, laid before the Commons, of date May 7, 1821, contains an ample collection of facts, which bear chiefly on the trade with China, but also touch on that of Indostan. Extensive details and discussions on this subject are foreign to our work; but we shall give an extract from some of the tables of that report, which will serve to show the extent as well as the nature of the commercial intercourse of Europe with India.

Table illustrating the India trade.

The first table which we copy blends the trade of China and India together, and gives chiefly a comparison between the proportion of the trade which was in the hands of the Company and of free traders, the latter including those who had privileges or licenses from the Company for those branches over which they possessed a control, as well as those which were thrown open to the public.

Imports.

Value of Imports from India and China into Great Britain, during the following years.

		£
1814.	By the Company,	7,227,663
	Free and privileged trade,	4,061,892
	Total,	£11,289,555
1815.	By the Company,	7,154,130
	Free and privileged trade,	5,769,459
	Total,	£12,923,589
1816.	By the Company,	7,855,312
	Free and privileged trade,	5,703,912
	Total,	£13,559,224
1817.	By the Company,	7,361,802
	Free and privileged trade,	5,097,748
	Total,	£12,459,550
1818.	By the Company,	5,192,804
	Free and privileged trade,	7,098,650
	Total,	£12,291,454

		£
1819.	By the Company,	£5,792,106
	Free and privileged trade,	6,297,510
	Total,	£12,089,916

Exports to India and China.

1814.	By the Company,	1,732,720
	Free and privileged trade,	870,177
	Total,	£2,602,897
1815.	By the Company,	1,753,302
	Free and privileged trade,	1,454,728
	Total,	£3,208,030
1816.	By the Company,	1,539,130
	Free and privileged trade,	1,868,396
	Total,	£3,407,526
1817.	By the Company,	1,313,491
	Free and privileged trade,	2,708,021
	Total,	£4,021,518
1818.	By the Company,	1,250,064
	Free and privileged trade,	3,052,741
	Total,	£4,302,805
1819.	By the Company,	1,358,327
	Free and privileged trade,	1,650,338
	Total,	£3,008,665

In this table we find the imports to Great Britain far exceeding the exports. This seems chiefly to arise from those remittances which, independently of an exchange of commodities, constitute an essential part of the wealth of Great Britain, forming an income which is spent in the country, promoting its internal trade, and swelling the national revenue. It is here that we see one of the leading causes of the opulence of that nation, and of the credit of her government. This is saved to the country after much has been squandered by the servants, civil and military,

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during their residence in India. Its operation has no connection with the question of profit or loss on the part of the East India Company,—a question too often confounded with that of the influence of the colonial possessions on the pecuniary interests of the nation and government.

The kind of intercourse which India maintains with the mother country will be exhibited in the following tabular view of the particular articles of import and export for the year 1819, those of which the Company was the medium, and those which were carried by free traders being included in one number.

Imports from India and China to Great Britain, for the year 1819.

	Value.
Borax,	£23,887
Camphor,	15,022
Cassia-lignea,	25,359
Cinnamon,	127,479
Cloves,	637
Coffee,	193,547
Cotton Wool,	2,452,344
Gum-lac,	56,365
Indigo,	1,106,715
Mace,	22,810
Mother-of-pearl shells,	13,176
Nutmegs,	145,489
Pepper,	198,745
Piece goods,	978,687
Rhubarb,	16,905
Rice,	374,954
Sago,	21,095
Saltpetre,	446,713
Raw silk of Bengal,	953,817
Ditto of China,	197,855
Sugar,	431,605
Tea,	3,859,442
Turmeric,	13,705
Other articles,	413,570
Total	£12,089,916

Exports from Great Britain to India and China, during the year 1819.

	Value.
Apothecary ware,	£23,168
Apparel,	30,811
Beer and ale,	40,398
Printed books,	40,844
Brass,	5,813
Cabinet and upholstery wares,	6,998
Carriages,	12,859
Coals,	1,124
Cochineal,	13,722
Colours for painters,	13,661
Copper in bricks and pigs,	231,951
——— in sheets and nails,	58,289
——— wrought,	39,985
Cordage,	5,827
Cotton manufactures,	461,367
Cotton twist and yarn,	138
Earthen-ware,	10,577
Glass,	77,145
Guns and pistols,	25,641
Haberdashery,	15,895
Hardwares,	29,601
Hats,	13,543
Iron in bars,	88,892
—— bolt and rod,	5,182
—— cast and wrought,	41,214
Lace and thread of gold and silver,	7,514
Lead and shot,	60,668
Leather and saddlery,	30,510
Linen manufactures,	22,275
Military stores,	20,951
Musical instruments,	14,220
Ordnance of brass and iron,	33,706
Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches,	46,353
Provisions,	40,658
Quicksilver,	93,614
Silk manufactures,	6,251
Soap and candles,	5,676
Spirits, British,	1,406
——— Foreign,	51,634
Stationary,	31,751
Steel, unwrought,	20,508
Carry forward,	£1,782,246

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Brought forward,	£1,782,216
Sugar, refined,	975
Swords,	939
Tin unwrought,	47
Tin and pewter wares,	7,198
Wines,	49,450
Woollen manufactures,	938,100
All other articles,	229,710
	£3,008,665

From the most cursory inspection of this last table, it will appear that a great proportion of the goods carried from Europe to India are for the consumption of the Europeans resident in that country.

The small quantity of Tin included in this list is sent by the Company. Tin abounds so much in India, and more especially in China, that it cannot be exported from this country except at a loss, and the Company sends it out only in compliance with a very absurd article in their charter.

Since trade has received additional activity by the removal of some restrictions, the sale of British woollens has been greatly increased. The cotton manufactures of England are the only articles altogether new that have found a sale among the natives.

Political revolutions.

The political vicissitudes to which Indostan has been subjected, are of a kind peculiar to that country. Among persons who have taken a cursory and partial view of modern events, it has been a common mistake to represent its native inhabitants as the most peaceful people in the world, becoming the unfortunate prey of rapacious foreign conquerors. In so far as regards their dispositions towards other countries, the Hindoos certainly have never shewn any disposition to give the slightest molestation. It is with them a principle of religion not to travel beyond the sacred territory which has given them birth, and in which alone opportunities are afforded for continuing the observances of their fathers, many of which have local re-

Character of the native governments.

ferences. But, when it is supposed that among themselves the Hindoos originally enjoyed peace and happiness, under native governments characterized by patriotic feelings, and watching with paternal solicitude over their interests, we shall find such pictures to be mere gratuitous assumptions, as soon as we endeavour to trace any particulars of the Hindoo history and character. The attacks and spoliations committed by others have been sufficiently barbarous; but they are not chargeable with the destruction of a native golden age. The only difference on the fate of this people has been, that they have been oppressed and plundered by strangers instead of their own countrymen.—Although the political and religious fabric of Brahminism has, from an antiquity more remote than history can trace, extended over Indostan, yet we have no evidence of that country, or even any large division of it, having been united under one political sovereign. The history of the emperor Vicramaditya is too ridiculous to be allowed the least historical credit, and must be consigned to the department of mythology [1]. All the monuments that can be admitted as throwing light on the early state of that country represent it as divided into numerous small principalities which were habitually at war with one another, and subjected to an internal government which combined the harshness of the savage character with the systematic oppression of an ill directed refinement, allowing no play to the freedom of action, and no opportunities for industry to improve the means of comfort or enjoyment. Revolutions were frequent, and their contests conducted with unsparing cruelty. Some of the most important documents found in that country are the inscriptions declaratory of grants of land made by Hindoo princes. In these the princes are always described as successful warriors, surrounded by

[1] See Mill's History of British India, Book II. Chap. 10. Also Capt. Wilford's Essay on Vicramaditya and Salivahana, in the 9th vol. of the Asiatic Researches, p. 158.

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enemies over whom they had triumphed. In the inscription found at Tanna, part of the panegyric of the donor prince runs thus: "Having raised up his slaughtered foe on his sharp sword, he so afflicted the women in the hostile palaces, that their fore-locks fell disordered, their garlands of bright flowers dropped from their necks on the vases of their breasts, and the black lustre of their eyes disappeared: a warrior, the plant of whose fame grows up over the temple of Brahma's egg, (the universe,) from the repeated watering of it with the drops that fell from the eyes of the wives of his slaughtered foe." Such are the traits of the rulers who flourished in Indostan, and such the subjects of panegyric and the ideas of merit and honour, which prevailed. The penal laws were cruel and partial in the extreme, and the practical conduct of the petty despotisms was in every thing the reverse of mild. "A thunderbolt," says the author of the Hetapodesa, "and the power of kings are both dreadful, but the former expendeth its fury at once, while the latter is constantly falling on our heads." "The conduct of princes," says the same work, "like a fine harlot, is of many colours; true and false; harsh and gentle; cruel and merciful; niggardly and generous; extravagant of expense and insatiably solicitous of the influx of treasure." "A man of good principles is hard to be found in a country governed for the most part by the rod. Princes, alas, in general, turn away their faces from a man of good qualities[a]."

Persian and Grecian conquests.

It appears from ancient historians that Indostan has always been subject to incursions and devastations in the direction of Western Tartary and the Paropamisan mountains. One of the most valuable of the satrapies of Darius Hystaspes was in India. The conquests of Alexander did not extend quite so far as the previous possessions of that monarch. Part of India, as far as the mouth of the river Indus, was included at one time in the kingdom of Bactria, possessed by the Grecian successors of Alexander.

[a] Wilkins's Hetapodesa, p. 161. 82. 160 166.

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More sweeping conquests were afterwards made by the Mahometans from Afghânistan, and by Tamerlane and his successors. These began thirteen centuries after the death of Alexander. In the year 1000 of the common era, Mahmood of Ghiznee subdued the greater part of Indostan, exercised the greatest cruelty on the nation, and did what he could to abolish all former systems of government. Death prevented this savage warrior from adding southern India to his conquests. Kuttub, one of his generals, founded the Afghân (called by the Hindoos the Patan) dynasty. In 1398, Tamerlane overran India, and in five months acquired in that region the epithet of "the Destroyer." The Mongols whom he commanded pillaged Delhi, committed every where the greatest cruelties, and carried off an immense booty. In 1526, they returned under Tamerlane's descendant Bauber, overthrew the Patan throne, and made Bauber emperor of Delhi. During these tremendous invasions, several Indian tribes of the warlike caste retired to the mountains, where they formed independent states of greater strength than the former kingdoms of India, and better qualified, as well as better situated, for maintaining their independence. Some of these have become, in modern times, formidable conquerors, under the designation of Mahrattas, Seiks, Ghoorkas, and other independent states. Bauber was the first Indian sovereign who received, in Europe, the title of the Great Mogul. Humayoon, his son and successor, had an active and warlike, but very troubled reign. He was deprived of his kingdom, which fell into the possession of Ferid, the Patan. This prince paid some attention to the prosperity of his kingdom, by forming great roads between Bengal and the Indus, establishing colonies, posts, and caravanseras for travellers. On his death, the king of Persia placed Humayoon again on the throne. He was succeeded by his son Akber, a prince renowned for valour, wisdom, and justice. He subdued Bengal, extended his empire both to the north and to the

Mahometans.

Mahmood of Ghiznee.

Tamerlane.

Bauber

Akber.

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south, and divided it into twelve provinces, or *soobahics*, each of which was subdivided into districts or *circars*, comprehending a certain number of cantons or *pergunnahs*.

Ayeen Akbery.

The history of Akber, written by his vizier Abul Fazel, describes the divisions, the population, industry, revenues, and topography of this emperor's possessions. The work is known under the title of Ayen Akbery, or "The Mirror of Akber." Arrived at the summit of its splendour,

Aurengzebe.

the kingdom was thrown into confusion by Aurengzebe, the grandson of Akber, who, after deposing his father, took violent possession of the throne, and oppressed the nation by all sorts of vexations. He is said to have drawn from the rent of cultivated land a revenue of 900 millions of francs, and to have kept up an army of a million of men. Aurengzebe is in a great measure the author of the modern political constitution of Indostan. He placed at the head of each province a Soobah, or lieutenant, under the name of *nabob*, to whom were consigned the command of the troops, and the disposal of civil employments. Each nabob possessed in a different province a portion of land from which he drew his own maintenance, and was thus deprived of the means of harassing the principalities in which he commanded. Several provinces contained principalities governed by their own rajahs, who paid tribute, and furnished troops to the emperor. The circars were governed by zemindars, a sort of feudatory nobles, who acted as judges, and collectors of the revenue. Aurengzebe was obliged to make war on the Mahrattas, and in the end paid them a fourth part of his revenues. The Seiks also made incursions into his territories, and were repulsed. Aurengzebe died in 1707, at the age of 90. Under his reign, the Mogul empire extended from the 10th to the 35th degree of latitude, and included a population of more than sixty-four millions.

Decline of the Mogul empire.

The successors of Aurengzebe, too weak to defend so vast an empire against the warlike nations by which it was surrounded, saw it, in the space of fifty years, reduced by unsuccessful wars to a most deplorable condition.

Nadir Shah of Persia made an incursion, in which he, with little trouble, carried off immense treasures from Delhi, though he afterwards lost one half of it in recrossing the desert. The Afghâns having obtained possession of a part of this booty, now disputed the empire of India with the Mahrattas. In 1761, 150,000 Mahometans under Abdala king of the Afghâns, were victorious in the famous battle of Delhi, in which they were opposed by 200,000 Mahrattas But the prospects thus afforded them were not followed up with sufficient zeal, and the empire, broken down into a plurality of governments under nabobs who set up for independence, was undermined by another race of invaders, who from Europe visited India, actuated by national ambition and commercial enterprise; accompanied in some instances, with an ardent spirit of religious proselytism.

Intrusion of Europeans.

An extensive commerce between India and the countries of the Mediterannean had been, by different routes, maintained from remote times. The Romans established a communication by the way of Egypt, which was destroyed by the conquests of the Saracens; but restored again by the Mamelukes, and conducted by the Venetians.

Enterprises of the Portuguese.

At length the Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, having discovered the passage by the Cape of Good Hope, landed at Calicut in 1498, and, after acquiring considerable influence by their political intrigues among the native princes, took possession of Goa, under Albuquerque, in 1508, and enjoyed a lucrative trade, as well as great power, in various parts of India, though weakened by internal jealousies and discords, till supplanted by the Dutch. The latter began their commercial enterprises in 1594, and in 1660, and 1663, after having deprived the Portuguese of their establishments in Malacca and Ceylon, they drove them from the most of their possessions on the coast of Malabar, and obtained establishments of factories for themselves on the Coromandel coast.

The Dutch.

The French, after some unsuccessful attempts on Surat and Trincomalee, took St. Thomé, near Madras, in 1672,

The French.

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which was afterwards taken from them by the native king of Golconda, aided by the Dutch; and the French settlement at Pondicherry was formed of the wreck of that prior establishment. In 1720, a small Austrian fleet from Ostend, appeared off the coast of Malabar, but the interference of that power was discontinued by agreement.

Austrians.

Danes.

The Danes without engaging in measures of hostility with any power, European, or native, obtained liberty from the Raja of Tanjore, to form a settlement at Tranquebar.

English.

England, however, has proved much more successful in acquiring an ascendency in this part of the world than any other power.

It was in the reign of Elizabeth, about the year 1600, after the favourable accounts of India brought home by Sir Francis Drake, that the English first engaged in mercantile enterprises in this direction. They obtained establishments of factories at different places in succession; at Surat, in 1612; at Madras, in 1653; and on the Hoogly, in Bengal, in 1645. In 1668 the strong island of Bombay, which Charles II. had received when he married the Infanta of Portugal, was given to the East India Company. In 1690 they obtained a settlement at Fort St. David, near Madras. Fort William was built in 1700. The different factories contained valuable stores, which always furnished ready cargoes for the ships. The native governments being sometimes insecure in themselves, or unable to give the English factories the necessary protection, the latter were strongly fortified and garrisoned with their own soldiers. These defensive arrangements became the rudiments of their future power.

Origin of their power.

About the year 1744, the English power in India obtained a decided ascendency over that of the other European nations; and in the first instance, no rapacity or injustice could exceed those which were practised by the servants of that Company, particularly in Bengal, where they insisted on engrossing the whole internal trade of the country; deposed one nabob, and established another different times in succession; securing at each

revolution an aggrandizement of their own possessions, together with a boon of ready treasure: For raising the latter, the Mahometan rulers were obliged to oppress the people to the utmost, and after all, were deposed for not fulfilling engagements which were really impracticable. The Company at home sometimes remonstrated against these, and other nefarious practices; and, sometimes aimed at a more decent and moderate manner of conducting them; but the avarice of their servants on that distant station, which removed them in a great measure from immediate control, and rendered ultimate responsibility a matter both tedious and difficult, so far prevailed as to stifle the voice of justice and humanity. In 1765 the political subjugation of Bengal to the direct power of the English was completed, and Lord Clive assumed the supreme command in India. The servants of the Company now enriched themselves, while the Company was reduced to poverty and difficulty. The Company, in order to realize their views of profit, took into their own hands the collection of the revenue from the land, a measure which, by subverting all former arrangements in property, was followed by a wide spread scene of defalcation, oppression, and misery. The ruin of the fertile but unfortunate Bengal was completed by a famine in 1770 and 1771, arising not from a monopoly in rice as has been asserted, but from a failure of two successive crops, by which about one-third of the inhabitants perished. Yet the revenue was violently kept up to its former standard. In other parts of India the British power continued to extend. In 1765 the Circars were given up to that nation. In 1769 Hyder Ali was defeated. In 1774 the British conquered Rohilcund. In 1778 they took some of the finest parts of Guzerat and the Concan from the Mahrattas. They were, in 1780, involved in another war with Hyder Ali, which terminated in 1784 in the conclusion of peace with his successor Tippoo.

Political state of Indostan in 1781

The following is a table of the political divisions of Indostan, as they existed in 1781

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A.—British possessions.

1. The whole soobah of Bengal in full sovereignty.
2. The greater part of Bahar.
3. The district of Benares.
4. The district of Midnapore in Orissa.
5. Four of the five northern Circars.
6. The Jaghire in the Carnatic, with a little additional territory.
7. The islands of Bombay and Salsette.
8. The Doab between the Jumna and Ganges, extending to within forty miles of Delhi, taken from the Nabob of Oude.

B.—Belonging to the Seiks.

1. The province of Lahore.
2. The principal part of Mooltan.
3. The western part of Delhi.

C.—To the Mahrattas.

1. The State of Poonah, called the western Mahratta State.
2. That of Berar, or the eastern State.

These two included the territory lying between the confines of Agra and the river Krishna, and great part of Adjimere.

D.—To the Nizam.

1. Golconda.
2. The principal part of Dowletabad.
3. The western part of Berar.
4. Guntoor, one of the northern Circars.

E.—To the Nabob of the Carnatic, Mahomet Ali.

The whole country lying between the Circar of Guntoor and Cape Comorin.

F.—To Tippoo Sultan.

1. Mysore.
2. Bednore.
3. Coimbatoor.
4. Canara.
5. Dindigul.
6. Some countries in the north, conquered by Hyder.

The district of Rampoor, at the foot of the northern mountains, was held by a Rohilla chief. Some of the Rajepoot states enjoyed a precarious and feeble independence, subjected to perpetual insults from the Mahrattas; and the northern mountains continued in the possession of obscure independent sovereigns, who took no part in the political disturbances of Indostan.

The evident contrast between this table and the present political state of this extensive country, as it has been unfolded in the preceding pages, renders it unnecessary to detail the particular political and military transactions, by means of which the British power in India has been extended, and secured against the different interests which had been opposed to it. Nor would it suit our work to delineate the characters, or appreciate the conduct, of those governors and military leaders, to whom the affairs of India have been committed.

Its present state.

Their general policy has been already sufficiently apparent. The jealousies of the political parties have been turned to account by them for effecting gradual encroachments. These have, in the course of time, lost much of their character of violence. An appearance of moderation has been kept up, sometimes founded in principle, and sometimes in the dictates of a cautious system of aggrandizement. Offers made by princes to subject themselves and their country to the English, have been refused. In many cases the acceptance of such offers would have embroiled them in disputes with other petty states, to the disturbance of their present rule, and the injury of their future prospects. It is also true that the dread of possessing too extended an empire, one which, to use a common place phrase of little meaning, would fall to pieces by its own weight, has had some influence, especially with the East India Company; but this dread has yielded to circumstances apparently imposing on them the imperious necessity of taking the reins into their own hands, sometimes in order to avoid perpetual molestation from a turbulent neighbour, sometimes to give order to a territory which otherwise was a certain prey to a wretched anarchy, and sometimes to terminate scenes of wanton inhumanity which would have otherwise been perpetuated. These, and other necessities have often been perceived and acted on by the servants of the Company in India, who have taken on themselves more responsibility than was allowed them.

British policy.

BOOK L.

Different princes who have submitted to the English from necessity, have still sighed for independent rule, have cherished against their masters all sorts of hostile designs, have broken their pledged faith, and raised the arm of ineffectual opposition, after repeated forgiveness of their former treacheries.

General results.

The fate of the native and Mahometan rulers has excited the sympathy of many Europeans, whose feelings are chiefly reserved for persons of rank and power, while the lot of the mass of the population has met with less consideration. With those who cherish extended philanthropy the present preponderance of Great Britain in India will not be a matter of regret. Principles of humanity, moderation, and justice, to the benefits of which the Hindoos had from time immemorial been strangers, are thus introduced among them in full operation.

Internal changes.

The proceedings of all who are concerned are, at this moment, brought more and more into the view of an impartial European public, and a great desire is every where manifested to render the existing influence as beneficial as possible to all classes of the numerous inhabitants of India. In the internal arrangements much improvement has been attempted. The land which, in that country, had always been considered as the property of the government, has been given to the natives as their permanent property.

State of landed property.

The zemindars, who, though persons of rank in the country, had formerly been merely hereditary collectors of the land-tax, are made the landholders, and the ryots, or cultivators, dependent on them, in the same manner as the farmers in Great Britain. It must be acknowledged, however, that in many cases the privileges of the ryots are by this arrangement abridged; and the zemindars, not having acquired the proper feelings of landholders, have acted the part of avaricious extortioners towards their tenantry. In other cases this natural aristocracy has made use of the power which was given them, to sell their estates, which have in the transfer been parcelled out among small proprietors. In some districts the partition of the inheritance

among a numerous family has co-operated with the cause now mentioned, to extinguish the order of landed gentry.

Police and administration of justice.

The establishment of an efficient police, and the administration of civil and criminal justice, have been made objects of solicitous attention. These objects have presented great difficulties, and the discussions to which they have given birth have been greatly extended [b]. In the government of Bengal the Mahometan system of law has been adopted, because it had already been established in the practice of the courts under the government to which the English Company succeeded. The business of the courts, however, is burdensome in the extreme, from the inordinate propensity to civil litigation which exists among the natives, as well as other causes now to be mentioned as applicable to the Indian empire at large. The expense of the judicial establishments is enormous, and the Directors of the East India Company do not think that they have cause to be satisfied with the arrangements which are made by the colonial authorities [c]. In the governments of Bombay and Madras, Hindoos and Mahometans are respectively tried by their own laws, both in civil and criminal cases. This is found necessary to secure their confidence [d]. For this reason an apparent partiality is exercised in favour of the Brahmins, when any one of that caste is convicted of a capital crime. He is not subjected to capital punishment, and he is exempted from the punishment of hard labour. He has been sometimes merely banished to a distant part of India, and thus dangerous characters have been let loose on society. On this account the punishments now most approved are either solitary and perpetual imprisonment, or transportation beyond the boundaries of India. The influence of this last is con-

[b] See Papers relating to Police, and Administration of Justice, under the governments of Bengal, Fort St. George, and Bombay, from 1810 to 1819. Printed by order of the House of Commons.

[c] See a Letter from the Court of Directors to the Governor-General in Council, 19th Feb. 1819, among the above Papers, p. 283.

[d] Observations of Mr. Dunlop, Papers, p. 343.

BOOK L.

ceived to be quite equal to that of capital execution, while it is much less revolting to the feelings of the well-disposed [c]. The selection of fit persons for the judicial office is another important problem. European judges are free from the motives to partiality which operate among many of the natives; and for this reason, as well as their superior character, their decisions are in many places regarded with particular respect and confidence [f]. But, labouring under a want of practical knowledge of the Hindoo character, they are disqualified, in many cases, for appreciating the value of evidence. They are liable to be imposed on by the falsehoods of witnesses, and they are apt to impute cunning to persons who are merely simple and awkward. Sir H. Strachey, judge and magistrate of Midnapore, in his Report for January, 1802, says, "We perhaps judge too much by rule. We imagine things to be incredible because they have not before fallen within our experience. We constantly mistake extreme simplicity for cunning. We make not sufficient allowance for the loose, vague, and inaccurate mode in which the natives tell a story; for their not comprehending us, and our not comprehending them. We hurry, terrify, and confound them, with our eagerness and impatience."

For these and other reasons, some give the preference to the decisions of heads of villages, or other persons whom the natives are accustomed to respect. Lieut. Wilks [g], Col. Munro, Col. Read, and others who enjoyed the advantage of practical experience in the Mysore country, recommend the administration of justice through the village *potails*, (or chiefs,) and the *punchaits* (juries of five) [h]. Col. Munro says, that a native who has a good cause applies for a punchait, while he who has a bad one seeks the

[c] Judicial Letter from Bombay. Ibid, p. 316. Case of Roop Sunker, who was imprisoned for life, and another Brahmin, guilty of administering poison, who was transported to Prince of Wales' Island for life. Ibid. p. 321.

[f] Ibid. p. 325. 328.

[g] Historical Sketches of the South of India.

[h] Papers, &c. p. 289.

decision of an English collector or judge, whom he knows it is so much easier to deceive. This, however, does not apply to the Bombay presidency, where these institutions had gone into disuse, and the natives in those ranks of life had, by unfavourable events, become demoralized and ignorant [i]. The punchaits are said also to found their decisions on considerations different from the real merits of the case. With the best evidence before them, they seldom award the whole of the amount claimed by the party, and rarely dismiss the most ill-founded demand without awarding a certain sum, determined by their opinion of the defendant's wealth, and other considerations still more foreign to substantial justice. A third expedient is the appointment of native commissioners by the government to the functions of judges. In some places this measure meets with praise [k]; in others it is condemned, on account of the want of respectability of the individuals who are willing to undertake such a set of duties for the small salaries allowed them [l]. Delays of justice, arising from the accumulation of cases [m] and the latitude of appeal [n], have also been felt, and called forth proposals for reform, such as the substitution of oral instead of written pleadings; a limitation of the right of appeal; and the restriction of the higher courts to causes of a certain magnitude [o]. It is to be regretted, however, that among the means of simplifying the functions of courts, recourse has been had to the imposition of stamp duties on law proceedings, and thus, by throwing an obstacle of greater expense in the way, refusing justice and protection to a certain number of individuals who are as well entitled to these blessings as their neighbours. With all these deductions, however, much has undoubtedly been done, as has already appeared in some of our topographical sketches, particularly for the prevention of crime. One of the obstacles which stood in the way of that object was the practice followed by powerful depredators, of intimidating per-

[i] Papers, &c. p. 327. [k] Ibid. p. 327. [l] Ibid. p. 297.
[m] Ibid. p. 299. [n] Ibid. p. 294, 301. [o] Ibid. p. 330.

BOOK L.

sons from giving evidence. It is not to be supposed that the progress of improvement in these particulars has yet reached its limit.

While the prejudices of the people are in general respected, some criminal practices, founded on hereditary delusions, are resisted. The murder of female infants, among the Rajepoots and some others, is prohibited, and the burning of widows every where discouraged. A length of time, however, will be requisite to bring these and other savage practices into universal disrepute.

Proceedings of missionaries.

Attempts are made to introduce among the natives the principles of Christianity. None of the violence which characterized the Romish missionaries is practised by the English clergy, or even by the more zealous methodists. Some of the latter, while endeavouring to promote their cause by reviling the character of Mahomet, have been prohibited by the government from following a method of address which tended so much to excite displeasure in the Mahometan part of the population. There is no reason to apprehend that prudent efforts to disseminate the truth can be more dangerous in the hands of the present predominant race than they proved in those of the Dutch nation in the island of Ceylon.

An English author who was in India during the latest great political changes which were effected, expresses a hope for futurity, which every well-disposed person must wish to entertain. "Perhaps, in some future age, when the genius of Britain shall no longer lord it over the prostrate realms of Asia, this germ of liberal institutions of internal polity may be referred to as the commencement of a happier era in these ample regions,—as the first lesson of self-government which Europeans shall have taught to the now slavish minds of the Hindoo race, and which may have afterwards led to the gradual diffusion of political liberty and moral improvement [p]."

[p] Prinsep's Narrative of the Political and Military Transactions of British India, under the Administration of the Marquis of Hastings, from 1813 to 1818, p. 436

BOOK I.

Many causes of instability have been pointed out by politicians in the tenure by which the British nation holds the empire of India. The extensive population of that anomalous empire; its great distance from the country of the ruling nation; the small number of English resident in India; the wide difference of religion, manners, and mode of life; the contempt and odium in which, on these accounts, the persons of the rulers are held; the disappointment of those natives whose power in the land of their fathers is diminished or threatened; the dread of future attempts to thwart their opinions, and subvert their institutions; the opposition of interests and inclination which is liable to occur between the British who are resident in India, and their government at home; the increase of the number of persons of a mixed European and Indian breed, who are kept in a subordinate rank, but disposed to claim political rights which they do not enjoy, and whose manners are considered by the proud and timid part of the English as offensively arrogant;—to these, and many other internal sources of insecurity, has been added the chance of invasion from surrounding nations, whether as already organized, or as they may become hereafter united under energetic leaders, to show that the present state of things must be of short duration. Any opposition arising from a patriotic spirit among a people so contracted in their sentiments, and so slavish in all their political feelings as the Hindoos, is the least likely of all the conceivable sources of future revolutions. The sepoys, or native troops in the service of England, participating in the universal political apathy, are always ready to serve with exclusive fidelity the power which pays them most liberally and most punctually. Their deeply-rooted prejudices, however, require to be scrupulously respected. Serious mutinies have arisen from instances of imprudence in this particular, which were allayed as soon as satisfactory pledges of this necessary respect were given to them.

Supposed instability of the British power.

BOOK L.

One part of the policy of England has hitherto been, to prevent the springing up of a numerous race of their own descendants as colonial settlers. Hence, though there is much unoccupied territory, no native European is permitted to establish himself as a landholder. All the English consequently are mere sojourners, most of them bound to their native country by early recollections, and the hopes of revisiting it after acquiring a fortune. The pleasure of finding in the eastern world another England, as those do who emigrate to America, who find that country in most particulars presenting the same social comforts and habits to which they have been early bred, and separated only by its political independence, this pleasure is never granted to the Englishman in India. He goes not to live among a race of friends, but in a nation of inferiors and slaves. Whether this policy is wise, or the reverse; whether it should be pronounced contracted or liberal; whether this, or an opposite course, would be productive of greatest advantage to the human race, and of the most agreeable terms of future intercourse in the event of India being by any means politically detached from England, these are questions merely fitted to occupy the speculative politician in his closet, and perhaps not necessarily involved in the great objects of an ultimate diffusion of intelligence and of happiness over India.

Table of the Area and Population of the Modern States of Indostan for 1820.

	British Sq. Miles.	Population.
BRITISH TERRITORY.		
Bengal, Bahar, and Benares	162,000	39,000,000
Additions in Indostan since A. D. 1765	148,000	18,000,000
Gurwal, Kumaoon, and the tract between the Sutledge and Jumna	18,000	500,000
Total under the Bengal Presidency	328,000	57,500,000
Madras Presidency	154,000	15,000,000
Bombay Presidency	11,000	2,500,000
Territories in the Deccan, &c. acquired since 1815, and not yet attached to any Presidency	60,000	8,000,000
Total British territory	553,000	83,000,000
BRITISH ALLIES AND TRIBUTARIES.		
The Nizam	96,000	10,000,000
The Nagpoor Raja	70,000	3,000,000
The King of Oude	20,000	3,000,000
The Guicowar	18,000	2,000,000
Kotah, 6500—Boondee, 2500—Bopaul, 5000	14,000	1,500,000
The Mysore Raja	27,000	3,000,000
The Satarah Raja	14,000	1,500,000
Travancore, 6000—Cochin, 2000	8,000	1,000,000
Under the Rajas of Joodpoor, Jeypoor, Odeypoor, Bicanere, Jesselmere, and other Rajepoot chiefs; Holcar, Ameer Khan, the Row of Cutch, and numerous other petty native chiefs; Seiks, Gonds, Bheels, Coolies, and Catties, all comprehended within the line of British protection	283,000	15,000,000
Total British and their Allies	1,103,000	123,000,000
INDEPENDENT STATES.		
The Raja of Nepál	53,000	2,000,000
The Raja of Lahore (Runjeet Singh)	50,000	3,000,000
The Ameers of Sinde	24,000	1,000,000
Scindia's Dominions	40,000	4,000,000
Belonging to the Afghán Empire	10,000	1,000,000
Total	1,280,000	134,000,000

BOOK L.

Table of the Military Forces of the British in India, as laid before Parliament in 1819.

King's Troops, Cavalry	4,692
Do. Infantry	17,858
East India Company's European Artillery	4,583
Do. European Infantry	3,120
Do. Native Cavalry	11,011
Do. Native Infantry	132,815
Do. Native Artillery	8,759
Irregular Native Cavalry	7,659
Do. Native Infantry	17,082
Invalids and Pensioners	5,875
Grand Total	213,454

Efficient British Armies in the Field in 1818	95,000
With nine followers to every two fighting men	427,500
Making an aggregate of	522,500

	Sicca Rupees.
Revenue of every Description in 1817, 1818	156,871,060
Acquisitions in 1818	14,358,953
	171,230,013

Or, £19,862,680

Table of the Principal Geographical Positions of Indostan, according to the most recent Astronomical Observations. BOOK I.

	Lat. N.			Long. E. from Lond.			Authorities.
	deg.	min.	sec.	deg.	min.	sec.	
Cape Comorin	7	55	0	77	39	15	Hamilton Moore.
Anjengo road	8	40	0	76	55	15	Elmore, British Mariner's Directory.
Cochin	9	56	30	76	16	15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Cranganore	10	52	0	75	5	15	Brit. Mar. Direct.
Telicherry	11	45	0	75	26	15	Idem.
Cananore	11	51	0	75	24	15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Goa	15	38	0	73	45	15	Brit. Mar. Direct.
Idem	15	31	0	Id.			Connaiss. des Tems.
Idem	15	28	20	Id.			Pennant, Rennel.
Bombay	18	58	0	72	38	15	Brit. Mar. Direct.
Idem	18	55	43	Id.			Niebuhr.
Bassein	19	19	0	72	40	15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Diu, (cape)	20	42	0	70	47	15	Idem.
Idem	20	44	0	70	42	45	Elmore.
Maddi Bender, (at the mouth of the Indus)	25	40	0	68	50	15	Rosily.
Pondicherry	11	55	41	79	51	45	Connaiss. des Tems.
Fort St. George, (Madras)	13	4	54	80	29	0	Idem.
Point Devy	16	6	0	80	30	15	Brit. Mar. Direct.
Point Godavery	16	45	0	82	40	15	Idem.
Ganjam	19	22	30	85	18	15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Balasore	21	30	20	87	10	15	Ritchie and Playsted.
Calcutta	22	35	0	88	10	0	Elmore.
CEYLON.							
Cape Dondra	5	47	0	80	41	45	Idem.
Trincomalee, (road)	8	35	0	81	27	15	Idem.
LACCADIVES.							
Caroly	10	30	0	72	34	15	Mannevillette.
MALDIVES.							
North Point	7	5	0	74	4	15	Topping, quoted by Rennel.
Idem	7	15	0	73	40	15	Brit. Mar. Direct.
South Point	0	40	south	74	45	15	Idem.

BOOK LI.

CHIN-INDIA.

PART I.

Containing a general Account of this region; and a Description of the Birman Empire.

BOOK LI.

Names of Chin-India.

THE only region which remains to complete our description of Asia is that situated between China and Indostan, comprehending the Birman empire, the kingdoms of Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, Laos, and Siam, and the peninsula of Malacca. We have at present no generic name in universal use for this region. There has been a want of etymological felicity in the formation of such as have been proposed for it. It is often called "the Peninsula beyond the Ganges." It contains two well marked peninsulas; but, as a whole, it is even less entitled to be called a peninsula than the Deccan of Indostan, since a portion of it would be comprehended within the general outline of the continent, supposing the projections to be left out. Probably this appellation was first applied by persons who only had in view the peninsula of Malacca, and was extended to the remainder with a mixture of carelessness and reluctance for want of a better. Among other appellations also in use, are the less exceptionable ones of "India beyond the Ganges," "Exterior India," and "Further India." As part of this region was once

subject to the Chinese government, and most of the races which inhabit it resemble the Chinese more or less in figure, physiognomy, and complexion, as well as in manners, religion, and language, the new name of Indo-China has been invented for it, and conceived to possess the recommendations of euphony and expressiveness. But we have no evidence of the subjection of this entire region at any period to the Chinese. The name of China belongs to one well-known empire, and could not, without impropriety, be applied to another country, unless it were to another empire or kingdom, which might, in that case, be distinguished by the addition of some epithet. This is done in the instance of the kingdom called Cochin-China, (or Marshy China.) Even that name has an awkwardness which is repugnant to good taste, though sanctioned by so long usage that no alteration is likely, in that instance, to be proposed. But it does not afford an example worthy of being followed in fabricating a new name, especially for a country consisting of a plurality of states. It will, therefore, be better to retain the term *India* as the leading name of this region. There will be less violence in extending the name of India to the confines of China, than in extending that of China over the eastern shore of the Bay of Bengal. India is more of a generic term than China, and this whole territory resembles India in various particulars, and, among others, in the political feature of being divided into several independent states, which have seldom been long united either by federal co-operation or by conquest. It will be very proper, at the same time, to make the partial Chinese character which it exhibits the foundation of a subordinate part of its name. The term *China* may be attached to that of India in the form of a genitive or adjective epithet. That country is not an Indo-China—a China resembling India. It is rather a Chinese India—an India with Chinese features. We would, therefore, propose a name for it expressive of this idea in a condensed form, by prefixing a single syllable to the term India. Influenced by these considerations, we shall use with our

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readers the freedom (which, after this explanation, we hope will not appear a great one) of henceforth designating this region under the appellation of Chin-India. We employ it with some confidence, as one which will, not only like other names, be rendered smooth by familiar use, but will secure the acquiescence of philological criticism.

Physical structure.

This vast country, extending from Bengal Bay to the Chinese Sea, is scarcely known except along its shores. The interior presents a field of useless and troublesome conjectures. The whole, however, seems to be formed by three or four chains of mountains, which proceed from Thibet, and run south in directions parallel to one another. Between these mountain ranges are situated three long and magnificent valleys, besides several of a subordinate rank. These valleys are watered by three great rivers; that of Ava, that of Siam, and that of Cambodia. The higher parts of these rivers, though laid down in our maps, are unknown. It is not ascertained whether all the three arise in the high mountains, or if this is the case only with one of them, which, from that cause, has a much longer course than the other two.

Uncertainties about the origin of the rivers.

The *Tsan-poo* of Thibet, which d'Anville considered as identical with the river of Ava, is decidedly the Brahmapootra, (commonly called the Booram-pooter,) which joins the Ganges, and falls into the Bay of Bengal. The first river of Chin-India is the *Irawaddy* or *Irabatty*, the great river of Ava, which is, perhaps, the *Ken-poo* of Thibet, though the point is not substantiated. Supposing this to be the case, we know nothing for certain of the length of the Ken-poo: only, it is quite unlikely that four or five great rivers should descend from the same table-land, preserving a perfect parallelism, and so close together, that the breadth of territory allowed them scarcely affords room to mark them in our maps. If the Thaluan, or the river of Martaban, has, as some assert, a longer course than the Irabatty, we must consider the Ken-poo as one of its tributaries; and it would, in that case, be the chief river of the great valley lying between the mountains of Arracan

BOOK LI.

and those of Siam. D'Anville considers the rivers of Martaban and Pegu as two mouths of one great river. Modern English travellers tell us that the river of Pegu is small, and rises but a short way from the sea. But these undoubtedly mean some small stream which falls into the Pagu river of d'Anville. Thus d'Anville, in assigning the course of the Noo-Kian, which comes from Thibet through China to the river of Pegu, and Buchanan, in giving that course to the Thaluan or river of Martaban, have told us precisely the same thing; and the whole correction which Dr. Buchanan believes himself to have made reduces itself to that of giving a different application from d'Anville to the designation of "river of Pegu." For our own part, we consider the Noo-Kian as very probably the river of Siam, the Meinam. Of all the rivers of these countries this has the highest and most regular inundations; whence it is reasonable to trace its sources to the most distant mountains in the centre of Thibet. Besides, we find that great gulfs generally receive large rivers. Loubere has given no plausible reason for the opposite opinion. He never saw the pretended sources to which he assigns a much more southerly situation. Yet his views are hitherto followed in all the maps, nor have we, in our atlas, represented it agreeably to the opinion which, after mature reflection, we have here ventured to express*.

D'Anville supported in opposition to Buchanan.

Opinion on the river of Siam.

The course of the Mei-Kong, the river of Cambodia, is, on the contrary, represented as very long. It is considered as the same which passes through Laos. But Duhalde says, that, according to the accounts of the Chinese, the capital of Laos was situated on a river which falls into that of Siam. D'Anville and Arrowsmith agree in making it proceed from the Thibetian Alps, where, according to the former of these geographers, it is called Lantsang-Kiang, and, according to the latter, Sat-Choo. Both make it pass through Yunnan. It would be somewhat singular for so long a river to travel to the extremity of a peninsula be-

Different accounts of the river Mei-Kong.

* This refers to the French atlas accompanying M. Malte-Brun's work.

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fore finding an outlet. That course requires also to be reconciled with the testimony of the Chinese, who make the chief river of Laos to communicate with that of Siam. Shall we, for this purpose, admit, with Dalrymple, an arm of the river called Annan, to unite the Meinam to the Mei-Kong, in the same way as the Cassiquiari connects the Rio-Negro with the Orinoco? All this is again contradicted by the account of the Dutch envoy, M. Wusthof, who, after saying that the Mei-Kong, or the river of Cambodia, has a course of 300 miles, represents its sources as in the north of Pegu, fifty miles from the capital of Laos; two data which, even taken abstractedly, are not easily rendered consistent. We are informed too, by a recent traveller, that the inhabitants of the country describe Laos as a table land without any large river [b]. Admitting this opinion, we can easily conceive that the two rivers of Siam and Cambodia have some communication, but we should always consider that of Siam as having the most distant sources.

Uncertainties about the mountains.

It will be readily anticipated, that the direction of the mountains of Chin-India must be a subject of still greater uncertainty; and accordingly we find this very difficult to determine amidst the chaos of contradictions advanced by travellers.

Of the four chains which are commonly supposed to exist, that which separates the Birman empire from Bengal becomes gradually lower in the kingdom of Arracan, till it is lost in small hills before reaching Cape Negrais.

The second, which seems to surpass all the others in height as well as in length, separates Pegu and Ava from the kingdom of Siam; then stretches along the whole peninsula of Malacca, and ends in Cape Romania, in the straits of Sincapore. That cape is the southern extremity of Asia.

Of the third chain scarcely any thing is known. It seems to separate the kingdom of Siam from those of Cam-

[b] See afterwards our account of Laos and Lac-Tho.

bodia and Laos. Perhaps it takes an oblique direction between Laos and Cambodia; perhaps it gives off branches which encircle a central plateau. In the south it is considered as running along the east side of the gulf of Siam to its extremity, where Cape Cambodia separates that gulf from the Chinese sea. But that cape is formed of low land; and we have no evidence of its being the termination of a mountain chain. BOOK LI.

The fourth chain is somewhat better known. It rises in the Chinese province of Yunnan, and bounds Tonquin and Cochin-China on the west, separating them from the kingdoms of Laos and Cambodia. For elevation and for extent this chain seems to rank among the most considerable in Asia.

To these imperfect notions of the physical structure of the Chin-Indian region, we are obliged to add information still more uncertain on the other leading points of its physical geography. The observations which travellers have made on the climate of the interior have all been hasty and imperfect. It undoubtedly contains several temperate regions. Such are those of the northern part of the Birman empire. The coasts are liable to intense heats. Yet these are moderated by the sea breezes, which are cooler and more humid than those of Indostan. But, as the seasons vary with the exposure of the different coasts, the particulars will enter into the descriptions of the respective countries. Climate.

The periodical inundation of the low valleys by the rising of the rivers is a circumstance common to all this region. But they observe different periods, and thus shew that the mountains or table lands in which they take their rise must be at unequal distances. Inundations.

The joint operation of the great heat and humidity imparts to the vegetation of Chin-India a character of singular vigour and magnificence. The contrasts of barrenness and fertility are here marked in the most striking manner. A burning sun reduces to the state of a light powder, or to that of a crust hard as rock, those soils Character of the vegetation.

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where the rain-water does not fall in the requisite abundance, or remain sufficiently long. But along the margins of the rivers, and on the sides of the mountains, an eternal verdure and an aspect of peculiar grandeur, from towering tops and extended foliage, characterize the mighty trees of those climates, in comparison of which the "kings of our forests" dwindle to the rank of humble vassals. These giants of the vegetable creation are surrounded by shrubs and herbs, which exhibit in their flowers and fruits, forms the most singular and diversified, and colours the most vivid, while they dispense flavours and odours the most delicious.

Forests.

Two of those which add dignity to the forests, are the *Alöexylum verum*, or eagle-wood, and the white sandal-wood, which are used as perfumes in all the palaces of the east. The teak of that country surpasses the English oak for durability in ship-building. The iron-tree is quite common. The true ebony is indigenous in Cochin-China. In every district we find the sycamore, the Indian fig, and the banana, which, by the exuberance of its large leaves, forms a grove of itself. There are other trees rivalling these in beauty or in stateliness; such are the *Bignonias*, the fan-palms, the *Calophyllum*, which shoots up higher than the pine, the *Nauclea orientalis*, and the *Agallocum* of Cochin-China, the leaves of which display a rich purple on their inferior surfaces.

Aromatic plants.

Chin-India is singularly rich in aromatic and medicinal species, and in those useful in the arts. Ginger and cardamoms grow wild on the banks of the rivers, or are cultivated in large plantations. The cinnamon tree grows abundantly on both coasts of the peninsula of Malacca, and is sometimes accompanied by the nut-meg. Turmeric is used by the inhabitants of these countries to tinge and season their rice and other dishes. Their favourite aromatics are betel leaf, the fruit of the long pepper, and black pepper, to which they add three or four species resembling long pepper, and the grains of the *Fagara piperata*, or long pepper of Japan. Among the different dye-stuffs are dis-

tinguished the carmentine, or *Justicia tinctoria*, which affords a beautiful green; three species of *royoc*, viz. the *Morinda umbellata*, *carthamus*, and *gambogia*, all of which are yellow dyes; indigo; and the red wood of the *Lawsonia spinosa*; and sapan. The bark of the *Rhizophora gymnorhiza* gives a beautiful red dye. The gum resin called dragon's blood seems to be the produce of more than one plant, among which are the *Dracæna ferrea*, and the rotang, natives of Cochin-China. Among the plants subservient to industry, we shall mention the *Pimelia oleosa*, from which an oil is obtained that enters into the composition of the Chinese varnish; the sumach of Java, another varnish tree; the *Croton laccifcrum*, from which is obtained the valuable red lac, the produce of a sort of ant which nestles on it, and separates this gum as his ordinary food; and finally, the suet tree, the *Sebifera glutinosa* of Loureiro, the *sapium* or *Gluttier porte-suif* of Jussieu, the fruit of which yields a stiff grease, from which are made candles of a handsome appearance but unpleasant smell.

Vegetable dye-stuffs.

From these countries we also obtain, for medical purposes, jalap, scammony, the bark of the *Nerium antidysentericum*, called *codogapala*, that of the *Laurus culiban*, the fruit of the *Strychnos nux vomica*, cassia, tamarinds, aloes, camphor, and castor oil. The sugar cane, the bamboo, spikenard, three celebrated plants of the family of reeds, are found in all these countries: the first two in the rich marshes, the last on the dry hills. The sweet potato, the *melongena*, and the love apple; melons, pumpkins, water melons, and a great quantity of other nutritious plants, enrich the plains. The banana, the cocoa, and the sago palm afford a most liberal supply to the wants of the inhabitants. Of fruits they have a great variety. The vine grows in the forests, but for want of culture, as well as the excessive heat, its fruit is much inferior to that of Europe. To make up for this disadvantage, they have the orange, the lemon, the citron, the delicious mango, the pine-apple, the *litchi*, (the *dimocarpus* of Loureiro and the *euphoria* of Jussieu,) the mangosteen, and a

Medicinal plants.

Alimentary plants.

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multitude of other fruits unknown in Europe. We may also take notice of the *Phyllodes placentaria*, the leaves of which are used for wrapping up provisions, in order to heighten their colour and improve their flavour, and are also like the *Amomum galanga* mixed with the fermented liquors obtained from rice and from sugar.

Animals.

The most remarkable animals of this region are the Indian elephant, the single horned rhinoceros, the tiger, the leopard, the bear, the ourang-outang, several species of the monkey, the gibbon, the baboon, the pitheca, and two others not yet fully known; Forbin's great ape of Malacca, and the white ape with red eyes mentioned by Compagnon. Among the wild inhabitants of the forest are the *bubalus*, the stag, several kinds of antelopes, as the *oryx*, the *strepsiceros*, the *albipes* of Erxleben, and the *tragocamelus* of Pallas. The civet and the porcupine are also found in these countries.

Minerals.

That portion of the Birman empire which, according to M. Gosselin, corresponds to the *Golden Chersonese* of the ancients, is very rich in minerals, and produces some very singular species, while Malacca, which had been previously taken for the golden Chersonese, scarcely produces a mineral of any value with the exception of tin. The rivers of Pegu still contain grains of gold, and in ancient times, their sands were probably much richer in this precious metal than now. The custom of gilding the cieling and the cupolas of the temples, seems to have existed from very remote times. We are told that the temple of Shoemadoo was built about 500 years before the Christian era. If that was the case, the brilliancy of so splendid an edifice may have given rise to the term "Golden Chersonese." Or the ancients may have been in possession of some vague tradition respecting the whole Chin-Indian region. Gold and silver abound still more in Tonquin and Cochin-China than in the Birman empire.

Short view of the Chin-Indian nations.

After this general sketch of the physical geography of Chin-India, let us take a general view of the nations which inhabit it, the languages which they speak, and the religions which they profess.

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With the exception of the Malays, who form a distinct race, mostly spread over Oceanica, the other Chin-Indian nations resemble the Mongolian and Chinese races in their figure, their square countenances, their yellow complexions, strong hair, and sparkling eyes. Hence we may safely consider them as of the same original stock. The Chinese have always extended along the eastern and southern shores of Chin-India, where they have introduced their written characters, and in some degree their language. The Birmans seem even to have preserved a tradition of the arrival of a Mongolian colony of 700,000 warriors. Such traditions would still lead to the inference that the first inhabitants had belonged to these countries from time immemorial.

Their physical qualities.

We are informed that besides the prevailing race, there is in the mountains, especially those of Cochin-China and Laos, a savage nation called Kemoys or Moys, who are black like the African Caffres. They seem nearly connected with the Haraforas of the Philippine islands and the other negroes of Oceanica.

Languages.

All the original languages of these nations, with the exception of the Malay, exhibit the same characteristic simplicity, poverty, and deficiency, with the monosyllabic languages of Thibet and China. They are, however, in their present state, subdivided into three perfectly distinct classes. The *Boman* or *Birman* language is spoken in Ava and Arracan; the Siamese language prevails in the kingdoms of Siam and Laos; and the Annamitic language is used in Annam, *i. e.* in Tonquin and Cochin-China, perhaps also in Cambodia. These languages are more or less mixed with Chinese or Hindostanee, according as the nations which speak them are situated near Indostan or China[e].

The dialect of Pegu differs entirely from these three; but it is not well known. The Malay, which extends over

[e] Leyden's Memoir on the Indo-Chinese Languages, in the 10th volume of the Asiatic Researches.

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the whole of Oceanica, contains a mixture of Sanscrit, with some Birman or Siamese roots, to which many Arabic words have been added, in consequence of commercial intercourse, and the prevalence of the Mussulman religion.

Religions.

The religion of Buddha, proceeding from Indostan, prevails, under a diversity of forms, over this whole country. It has probably become incorporated with various local and national superstitions, which it has not entirely superseded. The sacred writings of this sect are in the *Bali* or *Pali* language, a dialect derived from the Sanscrit, and probably the same which is spoken in Magada, or southern Bahar[d]. That rich, harmonious, and flexible language, has become the language of religion, and that of the priests and learned in the whole of Chin-India, with the exception of Malacca, Cochin-China, and Tonquin. The Mahometan religion excludes it from Malacca, while Cochin-China and Tonquin have been pervaded by the language and philosophy of the Chinese, introduced by colonies from that nation. Buddhism prevails there in the form which it has assumed in China, and Buddha is adored under the name of Fo.

The Bali, or sacred language.

Some of these general views of the nations now under consideration, will be farther unfolded in the account which we are now to give of the different leading divisions of this part of the world.

THE BIRMAN EMPIRE.

The Birman empire is the first political state which we meet in proceeding eastward from Indostan. It includes the kingdom of Ava, and the conquered provinces of Cassay and Arracan, on the west; Lowashan and Yunshan on the east; and Pegu, Martaban, Tenasserim, Mergui, Tavoy, and Junkseylon, on the south.

History of the Birmans.

In Dalrymple's Oriental Repertory, the Birmans are called *Boraghmans*. In the Birman alphabet, published at Rome in 1776, the name is written *Bomans*. They are

[d] Lolliere, in *Petity*. Encyclopédie Elémentaire, II. part 2, p. 623. Paullinus à Saint Barth. Examen codd. indic. p. 41.

also called *Mienmay*. Their native country is Ava Proper. They were at one time subject to the king of Pegu; but in the sixteenth century this numerous and warlike people revolutionized the country by taking possession of Ava, and then of Martaban. The Birmans continued masters of this country till 1740, when a civil war broke out in consequence of a revolt in the conquered provinces of Pegu, and was prosecuted on both sides with savage ferocity. In 1750 and 1751, the Peguans, with the aid of arms imported by Europeans, and the active services of some Dutch and Portuguese, beat their rivals, and in 1752, Ava, the capital, surrendered to them at discretion. Dweepdee, the last of a long line of Birman kings, was taken prisoner, with all his family, except two sons, who escaped into Siam. Binga Della, king of Pegu, returned to his hereditary dominions, leaving the government of Ava to his son Apporasa. When the conquest appeared complete and settled, one of those extraordinary characters which Providence sometimes raises up to change the destinies of nations, now appeared. This was a Birman called Alompra, a man of obscure birth, known by the name of "the huntsman," and the chief of Manchaboo, then a poor village. Having collected round him 100 picked men, he defeated the Peguan detachments in small skirmishes. Improving in experience, and acquiring confidence in his own strength, he attracted more numerous followers; and in the autumn of 1753, suddenly advanced, and obtained possession of Ava. Defeating the king of Pegu in several subsequent engagements, he invaded his territories, and in three months took his capital, which he gave up to indiscriminate plunder and carnage. Having sustained some indignities from the Siamese, he invaded Siam; but, during the siege of the metropolis of that kingdom, his career of conquest was suddenly terminated in 1760 by a fatal disease in the fiftieth year of his age, and ninth of his reign. Alompra was succeeded by his son Namdojee Praw, a minor. Shembuan, the uncle of this prince, brother to Alompra, acted as regent, and, on the death of his

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nephew, assumed the crown. Shembuan declared war against the Siamese, and took their capital in 1766, but did not retain permanent possession of that country. In 1767 the empire was invaded by a Chinese army, 50,000 strong, on the side of Yunnan, which advanced as far as a village called Chiboo; but the Birmans cut off their supplies, and then destroyed the whole of them, except 2500, who were sent in fetters to the Birman capital, compelled to labour in their respective trades, and encouraged to marry Birman wives, and become naturalized subjects. Shembuan subdued Cassay in 1774, and died in 1776. His son and successor, Chenguza, a debauched and bloody tyrant, was dethroned, and put to death in 1782, in a conspiracy headed by his own uncle Minderagee, who took possession of the government. This prince was the fourth son of Alompra. In 1783 he sent a fleet of boats against Arracan, which he easily conquered. He then marched against Siam, where he met with some checks; and, finding himself unable to retain possession of the interior, was obliged to content himself with the dominion of its western coast, as far south as Mergui, including the two important sea ports of Tavoy and Mergui, which were ceded to him by a treaty of peace in 1793.

In 1795 his Birman majesty marched an army of 5000 men into the English province of Chittagong, holding an army of 20,000 in readiness to join them in Arracan. His object was to claim three notorious robbers, who had taken refuge in that country. This force was confronted by a strong detachment from Calcutta. The affair was amicably adjusted by the delivery of the refugees, whose enormous guilt was established, and the Birmans withdrew without committing any disorders. The English Capt. Canning, who visited the Birman capital in 1809, found that it had deteriorated during the declining years of Minderagee Praw, who, naturally superstitious, cruel, and despotic, had become insupportably suspicious and irascible. He had abandoned Ummerapoor, his capital, and fixed his court at a place called Mengoury, seven miles up the

river, consisting of a cluster of sand-banks, where he was absorbed in melancholy, and occupied in the composition of drugs and charms for the prolongation of his life. The opposition to which his capricious cruelties gave rise rendered the country a scene of anarchy, rebellion, and robbery. More recently some absurd attempts have been made by this barbarous court to extend their influence to the west, at one time by claiming the provinces of Dacca and Chittagong, and at another by carrying on an intriguing correspondence with the Brahmins at Benares, by sending emissaries, in the disguise of merchants, to Dacca, on their way to the Seik territories, and others to Madras and Trincomalee, for the purpose of raising a general combination of the Indian governments against the British. These proceedings, and some hostile preparations which appeared to be made on the frontier, were never followed by any important events. In June, 1819, Minderagee Praw died, and was succeeded by his grandson. The junior branches of the family revolted, and scenes of massacre ensued.

Situation and extent of the empire.

The Birman empire includes a space between the 9th and 26th degrees of north latitude, and between the 92d and 104th of east longitude; being about 1050 geographical miles in length, and 600 in breadth. Its northern boundaries are perhaps still more distant; but its limits in that direction, and to the east, are fluctuating. It probably may contain 194,000 square miles.

Climate.

Though this empire extends into the torrid zone, it enjoys a temperate climate, in consequence of the elevation of its territory. The healthy and robust constitutions of the natives show the salubrity of the climate. The seasons are regular. Extreme cold is unknown, and the intense heat which precedes the rainy season is of short duration. This country exhibits every variety of soil and exposure. A flat marshy delta extends along the mouths of the Irawaddy. Beyond this are pleasing hills, picturesque valleys, and majestic mountains. The fertile soil of the southern provinces yields crops of rice equal to those

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of the finest districts of Bengal. Although the surface is more irregular and mountainous to the north, the plains and valleys, especially those situated on the banks of the great rivers, produce excellent wheat, and the different corn and leguminous crops which are cultivated in Indostan. Sugar canes, excellent tobacco, indigo, cotton, and the tropical fruits, are indigenous in this favoured country. Agriculture is said to be in an improved state, though the methods followed have never yet been satisfactorily described. In a district to the north-east of Ummerapoor, the tea leaf grows, but not equal to that which is produced in China, and seldom used except as a pickle. The teak tree grows in all parts of the country, though properly a native of the mountains. Almost every kind of timber found in Indostan is produced in the southern parts. Fir grows in the mountains, and turpentine is extracted from it; but the natives do not use the wood in carpentry, being prejudiced against it on account of its softness. The forests here, as in Indostan, are exceedingly unhealthy. Even the wood cutters, a race inured to this situation and mode of life, are said to be very short-lived.

Animals.

The animals are the same with those of Indostan. The only singularity which has been observed is the total absence of any sort of jackal. The plains are well stocked with cattle; but in the neighbourhood of the forests they are exposed to frequent ravages from the tigers, which are very numerous in this country. Pegu abounds in elephants.

Minerals.

The chief minerals are found in Ava Proper. Six days' journey from Bamoo, near the Chinese frontier, are the gold and silver mines of Badooem. There are also mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires, now open in a mountain called Woobolootan, near the river Ken-duem. But the richest are in the neighbourhood of the capital. Precious stones are found in several other parts of the empire. Iron, tin, lead, antimony, arsenic, and sulphur, are in great abundance. Great quantities of very pure amber are dug up near the river, and gold is found in the

sands of the mountain streams. One of these in the north, situated between the Ken-duem and the Irawaddy, is called "the stream of golden sand," (Shoe Lien Kioop.) There are no diamonds or emeralds in the empire; but it has amethysts, garnets, beautiful chrysolites, and jasper. There are, near Ummerapoor, quarries which yield marble equal to the finest in Italy. It is monopolized by the government, and consecrated to the making of images of Gaudma. This empire contains celebrated and very productive petroleum wells, which yield a large revenue to government, being retained as a monopoly.

Topography.

We shall now take a view of the provinces or kingdoms composing this empire, and their principal towns.

Kingdom of Cassay.

Cassay, in the north-west corner, adjoining the kingdom of Assam, is called in Sanscrit the country of the Muggaloo, which has been transformed into Meckley. It was formerly an independent state. Its capital, Munnapoora, is large and flourishing[e]. The inhabitants call themselves Moytai.

Kingdom of Cachar.

The kingdom of Cachar, (or Katchar,) which we have already mentioned[f] as usually subject to the Birmans, adjoins Cassay. The capital is Kaspoor, called Kospetir by the Portuguese historian Juan de Barros. The inhabitants are of Hindoo extraction, and are called Banga in their own language, and Aikobah by the Birmans.

Kingdom of Arracan.

The kingdom of Arracan, properly called Rokhang, between Ava and Bengal, is a continuation of the Chittagong plain, bounded on the east by a range of mountains, the southern part of which runs parallel to the sea coast, at a distance sometimes of 100, sometimes of only ten miles. From Chittagong it could not be entered by an army, except along the sea beach. The shore is studded with numerous islands and rocks, from which the country is seen, agreeably diversified with wooded hills and dales, and enlivened with numerous torrents. The river of Arracan is said to have a good entrance, without bar or

[e] Asiatic Researches, vol. V. p. 223.

[f] See p. 110 of this volume.

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shoals; and its situation, in a rich and wooded country, intermediate between Pegu and Bengal, would make it a good station for a timber depôt: but it has never been accurately explored, though the English had a factory here in the 18th century. During the south-west monsoon, however, the current and the wind would render it difficult for a vessel to get out of this river. The interior of the province is little known, but is supposed to be similar to that of Chittagong. The maritime tract maintains a considerable intercourse with Bengal, especially with Chittagong, to which it exports small horses, ivory, wax, gold, and silver. The viceroy or rajah is always the chief merchant. During peace, merchants travel over from the cities of Ava, and fit out forty or fifty boats for Bengal, each of which carries a cargo valued at 4000 rupees, chiefly in silver bullion. One half of them regularly return with red betel nut, chiefly from Luckipoor, where they farm the plantations of this article. Rice is also exported from Arracan, and from the contiguous islands, which are uncommonly fruitful. There is also, during the north-east monsoon, a general coasting trade along this shore, between the southerly and easterly parts of the Birman coast and Calcutta, including all the intervening sea-ports. The province of Arracan, however, has of late years suffered most calamitous alterations, in consequence of the increasing tyranny of the government. An insurgent of the name of Kingberring had in 1812 destroyed nearly all the cattle, the grain, and the orchards.—The natives are Buddhists in religion. Their language is monosyllabic. They have great difficulty in pronouncing any word ending with a consonant. They were long independent, previously to their subjugation by the Birmans; and, though invaded by the Moguls and the Peguans, had never been so far subdued as to acknowledge vassalage to a foreign power. The province is governed by a viceroy, called the Maywoon. In 1783 it was incorporated with the Birman government. In 1811 the insurgent, Kingberring, subjected the whole province, but was defeated in that and the

following year. No quarter was given in this contest, and entire villages were exterminated. The refugee Arracaners, called Mughs, are said not to be encouraged by the British, into whose dominions they have retired; but their determined character, and the extreme unhealthiness of their haunts to all who enter them from the west, render it a very difficult and expensive undertaking to expel them.

City of Arracan.

The city of Arracan is in latitude 29° 40′ N. and longitude 93° 5′ E. It has a fort in the middle, surrounded by houses, except on the north-east, where it has a large lake. The Birmans found considerable booty when they took this place in 1783. The object which they valued most was a brazen and highly burnished statue of Gaudma, about ten feet high, which had been for centuries visited by venerating pilgrims from remote countries, being considered as a direct copy of the original Rishi, taken from the life. This statue, along with five gigantic images of Racshyas, or demons, and an enormous gun, thirty feet in length, were carried off in triumph to Ummerapoor by water.

Cheduba island.

On the Arracan coast is the island of Cheduba, the most westerly of a considerable cluster of inhabited and fertile islands. It is said to have a good harbour. The channel between it and the main land is navigated by boats, but not safe for large vessels. It is governed by a Chekey or lieutenant, deputed by the Birman government.

Kingdom of Ava.

The kingdom of Ava, separated from Arracan by the Anoopectoomiu mountains, includes a vast extent of territory, the interior of which, lying towards Yunnan, is almost entirely unknown to Europeans.

The old capital.

The ancient capital, Ava, is now in ruins; the materials of the houses, which consisted chiefly of wood, having been removed to the new city of Ummerapoor; but the ground still retains traces of former streets and houses, and the walls of the forts and the embankments by which they are connected with the country, are conspicuous. There are also several temples standing, two of which are eminently sacred; the one containing a statue of Gaudma, twenty-four feet

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high, formed of a single block of marble, and called Logatherow Praw; the other, Shoe-gunga Praw, is the favourite place for the administration of the most important oaths. These temples suffer a gradual decay, no violence having ever been offered to them. The whole scene exhibits a most striking assemblage of ruins, the ponderous monuments of human labour being overrun with ivy, brambles, and other wild vegetation.

Ummerapoor, the modern capital.

The modern capital Ummerapoor, four miles east from the preceding, stands on the banks of a deep and extensive lake. Its site being quite peninsular during the periodical floods, exhibits a splendid appearance, from the number and variety of the boats, the great extent of the water, and the height of the surrounding mountains. Venice is the place with which it is most fitly compared. The fort is an exact square, with four principal gates, and a small one on both sides of each, making twelve in all. At each corner there is a large projecting bastion. It is respectable as an eastern fortification, and considered by the natives as impregnable, never having been assaulted by any enemy skilled in artillery tactics. The city has a few houses of brick and mortar, which belong to the royal family. All the houses are roofed with tile; and it is the custom to have earthen pitchers filled with water standing on the roof to be ready for extinguishing accidental fires. The unbounded expenditure of gilding on the roofs of the religious buildings both without and within, gives the city an extraordinary degree of splendour. There is in some of the streets a brilliant display of Birman utensils, and silversmith's goods. In 1810, when Captain Canning visited the place, most of the shops had disappeared, and the entire city, including the fort and palaces, had been destroyed by fire. The royal library is in an angle of the fort, and consists of 100 ornamented chests, well filled with books of history, romance, medicine, music, and painting, but chiefly divinity. There are four magistrates, each of whom has a district of the city allotted to him, and a regular order of lawyers is attached to their courts of justice

as agents and pleaders. Ummerapoor was founded in 1783 by the same monarch who afterwards capriciously abandoned it for a comparatively wretched situation higher up the river. In 1800 the population of Ummerapoor was estimated by Captain Coxe at 175,000, and the houses from 20,000 to 25,000; but in 1810, Captain Canning was of opinion that the population had diminished one half.

Bamoo, in the northern quarter of the empire, is only twenty miles from the Chinese frontier, and was taken from that nation by the present Birman dynasty. It is in Lat. 24° N. and Long. 96° 56′ E. Bamoo.

Monchaboo, though a small place, is greatly venerated as the birth place of Alompra, and was the capital during his reign. Lat. 22° 40′ N. Long. 96° 20′ E. Chagaing, in Lat. 21° 54′, and Long. 96°, is the great emporium for the cotton which is embarked for the Chinese market. It is a great religious resort on account of its numerous temples. It is celebrated for the manufacture of idols, and of fire-works, particularly rockets of uncommon size, in which the Birmans take great delight. Forty miles down the Irawaddy, are the splendid ruins of Pagahm, once the residence of a long line of kings, but abandoned as the metropolis in consequence of a supposed divine admonition. Long after this it continued to be the second city in the empire; but in 1809 it had been sacked by the insurgent Nakonek. The remains of its innumerable temples prove it to have been a place of extraordinary splendour. Sillahmew was in 1795 a large town, embellished with temples, and famous for a manufactory of strong and richly coloured silks, but when visited by the British mission in 1809 it was found ruined and deserted, having, like the preceding, fallen a prey to the ravages of Nakonek. Monchaboo.

Shembigewn, on the Irawaddy, is eight days' journey from Ummerapoor. Here the road to Arracan branches off. Yanangheoom another town a few miles from the former, is chiefly inhabited by potters. Five miles east from Yanangheoom, are the celebrated petroleum wells al- Shembigewn. Petroleum wells.

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ready mentioned, which are dug to a depth of thirty-seven fathoms, and about four feet wide. Iron pots are let down to receive the petroleum. When the produce fails, the well is deepened through the hard rock, to renew the spring. This commodity, which is in great abundance, is sold very cheap on the spot. Its principal expense consists in the earthen pots which contain it, and the charge of carriage.

Prome.

Prome, on the east side of the Irawaddy, in Lat. 18° 50′ N. and Long. 95° E. is on the boundary which separates Ava Proper from Pegu. In 1795 it was larger and more populous than Rangoon, and was supposed to contain 40,000 inhabitants, but in 1809 it was found deserted, its shops shut up, and the population consisting mostly of old men, women, and children.

Savage tribes.

Ava contains different half savage tribes. The southern forests are inhabited by a very peaceable race called the Karaïnes. The Kains, or Yoo, live in the hills between Ava and Arracan, forming four vassal principalities, and speaking a dialect of Birman [g]. The northern parts adjoining Thibet, are inhabited by the Leess.

Lowashan.

The eastern parts of Ava are scarcely known, where the kingdom of Lowashan extends along the two sides of the river of Pegu. Two towns of this province are mentioned under the names of Quang-tong, and Chiamay. Near this last is a lake, which in the maps of the sixteenth century was grossly exaggerated in size, and described as the origin of the four rivers of Ava, Pegu, Siam, and Cambodia; an idea now rejected.

Country of Barma.

In these obscure regions, old travellers mention a city and country under the name of Barma, or Brama, which they describe as a separate kingdom from Ava, and whose king sometimes carried on wars against the king of Ava [h].

Kingdom of Pegu.

The kingdom of Pegu occupies the low lands watered by the Irawaddy, and the Thâlayn, and comprehends the

[g] Asiatic Researches vol. V.

[h] Mandelslo, Itin. p. 114.

sea coast from Arracan to Siam. The name appears to be a corruption of Bagoo, the vulgar name of the capital.

About a day's journey to the south of the capital, the country is much infested by elephants, which devastate the early crops of rice and sugar-cane. This country is relieved from many severe laws by which it was oppressed as a conquered country; but still its native inhabitants are not admitted to places of trust and power. Containing much timber, particularly teak, this province has long been famous for ship-building. The Arabs built vessels here in 1707. The inhabitants were more early civilized than the Birmans, and were once a powerful nation. Their language, which is called Mon, is quite original, being neither related to the Birman nor the Siamese. The country has continued in a state of great desolation since the sanguinary wars of the Birmans. In 1812, 3000 men were demanded as the quota of the thirty-two districts of Pegu, for the Arracan war; but it was found impossible to collect that number.

City of Pegu.

The city of Pegu is ninety miles up the river from Rangoon. The fort and all the houses were destroyed by Alompra, and the people carried into captivity; the temples alone were spared. About 1790, Minderagee issued orders to rebuild the city. Several priests returned to it, a few poor families, and some followers of the court, as the viceroy fixed his residence here. The merchants and artizans continued to live at Rangoon. In 1795 its inhabitants were 7000. It is now fenced round with a stoccade eleven feet high. The houses being extremely combustible, a long hook is placed at each door for pulling down the thatch in case of fire, to prevent it from spreading.

Temple of Shoemadoo.

The most remarkable object at this place is Shoemadoo, the only temple which has been kept in repair. It consists of a solid pyramid. The diameter at the base is 162 feet. At the base it is octagonal, and spiral at the top. Its height is 361 feet. On the top is a *tee* or gallery, in the form of an umbrella, fifty-six feet in circumference, supported by iron pillars, the whole being

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superbly gilt. The building is of brick and mortar. Its name seems to be compounded of *shoe*, the term for gold, and *madoo*, a contraction for *Mahadeo*. It is said to have been built 600 years before Christ. It seems to have been known to Marco Polo. He describes the mausoleum erected by a king of Mien, the towers of which were covered with gold, and adorned with a multitude of small silver bells, which, when moved by the wind, emitted agreeable sounds. These towers were of a pyramidal form. If these delineations are not sufficient to show that this traveller described the temple of Shoemadoo, they prove, at least, that the taste of the Peguans in architecture has not changed for several ages.

Sea-ports. Rangoon.

The principal sea-port of the empire is Rangoon in Pegu. The entrance of the river, below this place, resembles that of the Ganges, but is more commodious for navigation. The town stretches about a mile along the banks of the river, and is not more than a third of a mile broad. In 1795 it contained 5000 taxable houses. In 1812 they had been reduced to 1500, by fire and bad government. A little above the mouth of the Pegu river is Siriam, formerly one of the chief ports of the kingdom. It was a place of considerable trade while the Portuguese first, and afterwards the Dutch, had a factory at it. It was the mart for rubies, and there was a great exportation of the earthen ware, the tin and rice of Martaban, the capital of an ancient kingdom, and a much frequented harbour, before the Birman monarch shut it up. The same trade was also carried on at Tavoy.

Southern provinces.

Among the places taken by the Birmans from the king of Siam to the south of Pegu, are Tavoy, and Tenasserim, each of which names is applied to a country, a river, and a town. Below the city of Tenasserim, about six miles from the mouth of the river of that name, is the sea-port of Mergui, which is governed by an officer sent from the Birman capital. At this place, a number of Mahometans are settled, and some Romish Christians, who have a priest and a church. The Mergui islands, an archipelago ex-

Mergui.

tending along this coast 135 miles, are not inhabited, though the soil is said to be fertile.

Junkseylon.

To the south of these is the island of Junkseylon, about fifty-four miles long and fifteen broad, separated from the main-land by a shallow channel, a mile in breadth, which is nearly dry at low water. It has a harbour called Popra at the north end, which may be entered over a mud bar during the spring tides, by ships drawing twenty feet of water. The anchorage round the island is generally good. It was a place of great trade previously to the establishment of Prince of Wales' Island. It has valuable tin mines, which are worked by the natives; the metal is smelted by the Chinese. Its chief town is Terrowa. It was taken from the Siamese in 1810. It now forms the southern extremity of the Birman empire, and is inhabited by a mixture of Malays, Chinese, Siamese, and Birmans. It is governed by a mayoon sent from Ava, who watches with jealousy the approach of any European ship of war, but merchant ships readily obtain refreshments on reasonable terms.

Character of the Birmans.

The Birmans differ remarkably in physical and in moral character from the Hindoos. Lively, impatient, active, and irascible, they have none of the habitual indolence of the natives of Indostan, nor are they addicted to that gloomy jealousy which prompts so many eastern nations to immure their females in the solitude of a harem. The sexes have equally free intercourse as in Europe, but they treat the women as an inferior order of beings. Their testimony in a court of justice is less valued. They are often sold or lent to strangers without blame or scruple. They are much engaged in labour, and, on the whole, faithful to the conjugal tie. The Birmans participate of the Chinese physiognomy. The women, especially in the northern parts, are fairer than those of the Hindoos, but less delicately formed. The men are not tall, but active and muscular. They pluck their beards, and thus give themselves a youthful appearance. Both men and women colour the teeth and the edges of the eye-lids with black. Marriages are not

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contracted before puberty. Polygamy is prohibited, but concubinage is admitted without limitation. The bodies of the dead are burned. They are less delicate and cleanly in their eating than the Hindoos. They kill no domestic animals, being prohibited by their religion, but make abundant use of game. The lower orders eat lizards, guanas, and snakes. They are very indulgent to the manners and customs of strangers. The sitting posture is reckoned among them the most respectful, though this mark of deference has been mistaken by some strangers for an expression of insolence.

Language.

The Pali language is that of the sacred text of Ava, Pegu, and Siam. The Birman dialect has borrowed the Sanscrit alphabet. The character in common use is a round Nagari, consisting of curves following the analogies of the square Pali[j]. It is written from left to right, like the languages of Europe. The common books are composed of the palmyra leaf, on which the letters are engraved with stiles, and are better executed than those of the Hindoos. Sometimes they write on plates of gilded sheet iron[k]. In a Birman version of the Lord's prayer, the missionaries could scarcely discover three genuine Sanscrit words; but many syllables are found coinciding with those of the colloquial dialect of the Chinese. A knowledge of letters is very generally diffused. Many read and write the vulgar tongue, though few understand the learned and sacred volumes. The Birmans are fond of poetry and music, and in the latter, make use of an instrument formed of a series of reeds, on the principle of Pan's reed. They possess epic and religious poems of great celebrity, and recite in verse the exploits of their heroes. Colonel Symes was astonished at the number of books contained in the royal library, where the contents of each chest are written on the outside in letters of gold.

[j] Mém. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1729. tome VII. 2me partie, p. 818.

[k] Annal. Chinoises, quoted by Klaproth, Archives de la Litterature Orientale, I. 187.

The Birman year is divided into twelve months of twenty-nine and thirty days alternately, and every third year is made up by an intercalary month. They reckon the days of the month from the first of the moon to the full, and then in a retrograde order from the full to the next new moon. Calendar.

The Birmans excel in the art of gilding. The capital maintains a considerable commercial intercourse with Yunnan, the nearest province of China. It exports cotton, amber, ivory, rubies, sapphires, and betel nuts; birds and edible nests from the Eastern Islands; and receives in return raw or manufactured silk, velvets, gold leaf, paper, sweet-meats, and a variety of hardware. By the river Irawaddy there is a great inland trade in the transport of rice, salt, and pickled sprats from the lower provinces, to supply the capital and northern districts. Some foreign articles are brought by Arracan, and carried over the mountains by men, but the greater part by the Irawaddy. Broad cloth, some hardware, coarse muslins, Cossimbazar silk handkerchiefs, china-ware, and glass, are the leading commodities. Some lac, silver, and precious stones are exported. In 1795 the quantity of timber exported to Madras and Calcutta amounted to a value of L.200,000 sterling. About 3000 tons of shipping are, in peaceable times, built in this country, and sold in different parts of India. The maritime ports of this empire are more commodiously situated than those of any other power, particularly the harbour of Negrais. The currency consists of silver, bullion, and lead, in small pieces; as the Birmans, like the Chinese, have no coin. Manufactures and commerce.

The religion of the Birmans is that of Buddha, whom they worship under the name of Gaudma, identical with the Gautama or Godama of the Hindoos. The Rhahaans, or priests, dress in yellow like the Chinese bonzes, and resemble them in many of their customs. Their *kiooms*, or convents, resemble Chinese buildings, being made of wood, with one large hall in the interior. They have no private apartments, publicity being the prevailing system, Religion.

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and no secrets admitted either in church or state. They profess celibacy and abstemiousness. They take only one meal daily, which is about noon. They do not dress their own food, an occupation which they reckon incompatible with the mental contemplations incumbent on them. They receive daily the contributions of the people ready dressed, generally consisting of boiled rice mixed with oil, dried and pickled fish, sweetmeats, and fruit. They prefer cold food to warm. While perambulating the town in the morning, to receive the supplies for the day, they look straight forward to the ground, never turn their eyes aside, do not solicit any thing, and scarcely look at the donors. Their superfluity is bestowed on needy strangers and poor scholars. These rhahaans, or talapoins, as they are also called, have composed many books of morality. They never interfere in political disputes; and, during the sanguinary contests of the Birmans and Peguans, were always respected by both parties, to whatever country they themselves belonged. They pay a certain respect to the Hindoo Brahmins, though they do not follow their doctrines. They have none of their pride of caste, their unnatural self-tortures, and other repulsive usages; and on the whole, Buddhism wears a more favourable aspect in this than in other countries where it is maintained. The Birmans are extremely fond of religious processions; and they place a great merit in the building of temples, neglecting, however, the keeping up of those which exist. Hence the country exhibits numerous edifices of this sort in a state of progressive decay, while new ones are erected in their immediate neighbourhood.

Laws.

Their legal code is one of the commentaries on Menu. Their system provides specifically for almost every conceivable crime: it admits trial by ordeal, and imprecation. On the subject of females it is offensively minute. It is a singular fact, that the first version of Sir William Jones's translation of the institutes of Hindoo law was made into the Birman language by an Armenian, for the use of the Birman sovereign, in 1795.

In the Birman empire, the sovereign is completely despotic. When any thing belonging to him is mentioned, the epithet "golden" is attached to it. When he is said to have heard any thing, "it has reached the golden ears:" a person admitted to his presence "has been at the golden feet:" the perfume of roses is described as grateful to "the golden nose." The sovereign is sole proprietor of all the elephants in his dominions; and the privilege to keep or ride on one is only granted to men of the first rank. No honours are hereditary. All offices and dignities depend immediately on the crown. The *tsaloë*, or chain, is the badge of nobility; and superiority of rank is signified by the number of cords or of divisions. The council of state consists of the princes of the royal family. Men of rank have their barges dragged by war boats, common water-men not being admitted into the same boat with them. Temporary houses are built for them at the places where they mean to stop in travelling. Government.

A singularly absurd custom takes place in this country in certain forms of political homage shown to a white elephant, a preternatural animal kept for the purpose, superbly lodged near the royal palace, sumptuously dressed and fed, provided with functionaries like a second sovereign, held next in rank to the king, and superior to the queen, and made to receive presents and other tokens of respect from foreign ambassadors. Honours of the white elephant.

The court of Ava is fully as proud as that of Pekin. The sovereign acknowledges no equal. The punctilios of ceremony are numerous, and rigidly followed; and the utmost guardedness is observed in any diplomatic intercourse with foreign states. The manners of the great are often pleasing, but they are crafty; and the tenures by which they hold their offices render them rapacious. Obliged to give large presents to the king, they have recourse to extortion, speculations in trade, and almost universal monopoly. Great vicissitudes of fortune are occasioned by royal caprice. The court. The great.

Colonel Symes rated the population of the Birman do- Population.

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minions at seventeen millions; Captain Cox, the next ambassador, at no more than eight, and Captain Canning believed that even this estimate exceeded the truth. A country rich by nature, and capable of a high state of prosperity under tolerable management, has been wretchedly desolated by a barbarous government.

Army.

Here every man is a soldier, and liable to be called out on military duty. The only standing army consists of a few undisciplined native Christians and renegadoes from other countries, who act as artillery; a very small body of cavalry, and about 2000 miserable infantry. The armies are composed of levies raised on the spur of the occasion by the princes and lords, who hold their lands on this condition. They have never exceeded 60,000 men. The family of each soldier is responsible for his good behaviour, and the whole are put to death when he proves guilty of cowardice or desertion. The infantry are armed with muskets and sabres; the cavalry, who are all natives of Cassay, carry spears seven or eight feet long. The most respectable part of the Birman military force consists of the war-boats, which are furnished and manned by the different towns in the vicinity of the river, in numbers proportioned to their respective sizes. Formerly the king could on a short notice command 500 of these boats. They carry forty or fifty rowers, each armed with a sword and lance, about thirty soldiers with muskets, and a piece of ordnance on the prow. They make an impetuous attack, and use grapples for boarding; but lying deep in the water, they are easily run down and sunk by the impulse of another of larger size.

Revenue.

The king claims one-tenth of all the produce, and the same amount on all imports. The revenue arising from customs is mostly taken in kind; a small part of it is converted into cash; the rest is distributed in lieu of salaries to the various departments of the court. Money is never, except on the most pressing occasions, disbursed from the royal coffers. Insatiable hoarding is here, as in other oriental countries, a standing maxim of state policy; and the

riches actually in the possession of this monarch must be immense; but how heavily must the wheels of commerce move, and how low, comparatively, must the scale of national wealth and power stand, when maxims so narrow and absurd fetter every part of the machine!

Political importance.

By some this empire has been regarded as a formidable barrier to the progress of British ambition and cupidity in an easterly direction. The unsatisfactory nature of these extended continental possessions will probably of itself limit that ambition, especially where the field becomes comparatively new, and where farther extension does not promise to contribute to the permanent retention of present possessions, but must rather, on the contrary, expose them to new dangers. In its present state this empire is a very desirable barrier between the British and the Chinese governments, being too weak to offer serious molestation to a powerful neighbour, and too inhospitable to afford temptation to an invading army. It is now like the deserts that separate the Chinese from the Russian dominions. If this is an advantage to the repose of a great portion of the world, humanity must regret that it assumes this character, by giving rise to so large a portion of misery and desolation within itself. Yet perhaps the most sanguine political Quixote would find it a difficult task to sketch even in theory, a plan on which the Birman dominions could be put in possession of the blessings of political and civil prosperity, consistently with the maintenance of a liberal and safe line of conduct on the part of the regenerators.

Protestant missionaries.

In 1810 there were four Protestant missionaries in Ava, a country which, from the maxims of toleration established in it, seemed to afford a fair field for the operation of rational instruction: but the progress made seems to have been inconsiderable; and, in a government so capricious and despotic, the policy on the head of toleration may be suddenly reversed, as soon as prejudice or malice, conceived by interested individuals, may choose to represent the spread of new opinions as a ground of political alarm. The chief safety of these benevolent individuals is proba-

BOOK II. bly derived from the respect paid to the British power, as established in the immediate vicinity.

Adjoining chain of islands. There is a chain of islands extending from Point Negrais, in Pegu, to the north end of the island of Sumatra, in a line parallel to the shore of the Birman peninsula, which has been considered by some as a desirable station for any enterprizing European country, entertaining an ambition to open a commercial intercourse with the Birman empire. This chain is divided into two groups, the Andaman and Nicobar islands.

The Andamans. The Andamans, on the north, are the largest group of the two. Under this name they were known to the Arabians in the ninth century. The largest island is about 140 miles long, and not more than twenty-two in its greatest breadth. It is indented with deep bays, forming excellent harbours, and divided by large gulfs, one of which is navigable for small vessels, and almost crosses the island, according to the charts prior to that which Dalrymple has attached to the narrative of Col. Symes. In this last we find the island divided into three by very narrow channels. The maps of the 16th century also represent it as a long chain of small islands. The soil consists of a strong stratum of blackish earth; the rocks are a white quartz. We are informed that it contains some mineral products, and, among the rest, quicksilver[1]. There are extensive forests, containing some valuable trees; such as the ebony, and the *mellori*, or bread-fruit tree of Nicobar. The only quadrupeds found here are wild hogs, monkeys, and rats. The sea abounds in fish, among which are mullet, soles, and excellent oysters.

Productions.

Inhabitants. The inhabitants of the Andamans are low in civilization, and probably cannibals. Their antipathy to strangers is singularly strong, and it must be allowed that it has been in some measure justified by atrocities committed by piratical crews. They have woolly hair, the negro countenance, and the ferocious and crafty character of the

[1] Hamilton, II. 68. 8vo. edit. quoted by Walckenaer.

negro race. Their barbarous language resembles no dialect either of Indostan or Chin-India [m]. They seem to belong to the great negro race of Oceanica spread over New Guinea and Van Diemen's land. These savages scarcely knew how to build a boat, or to manage a rope: but they have acquired a little more civilization in consequence of an English establishment having been formed on the great Andaman, to which some criminals have been sent from Bengal.

Nicobar islands.

The Nicobar islands form three small groups. The most northerly is called Car-Nicobar. Next to these are the Nicobars Proper, three in number, forming jointly a large and excellent harbour. The Sambelong islands are the most southerly. All these islands produce plenty of cocoas, areca, sugar canes, *Laurus cassia*, excellent teak wood, and sassafras of the best aromatic quality [n]. The tree called by the natives *larum*, and *mellori* by the Portuguese, bears a fruit superior to the bread tree of Otaheité, from which it differs in botanical character. The cattle brought to them from Europe have multiplied amazingly, and the edible birds' nests, so much esteemed in China, abound both here and in the Andamans. The inhabitants are copper-coloured, with small oblique eyes. Attached to their dress is a small stripe of cloth hanging behind, which gave origin to the absurd stories of an ignorant Swedish sailor Kœping, who induced Linnæus to infer the existence of a race of men with tails. Their language and origin have not yet been investigated; but they are conjectured to be of Peguan descent.

Productions.

Inhabitants.

The Danes are the acknowledged masters of these islands; and formed on the isle of Kamorta a small establishment which they called New Zealand, but afterwards

[m] Colebrook and Fontana. Asiat. Researches, vol. III. and IV. Symes's Embassy to Ava, p. 127—138.

[n] Prahl. Present State of the Nicobar Islands, ch. 17. (Copenhagen, 1804, in Danish.)

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gave up to a Moravian fraternity. The Austrians proposed to found a colony here in 1778; but they yielded to the claims of Denmark.

Barren Island.

To the east of these islands, and belonging to neither, though nearest to the Andamans, being at a distance of seventy miles, is the picturesque volcano of Barren Island, which emits a reddish-coloured lava.

BOOK LII.

CHIN-INDIA.

PART II.

The Kingdoms of Laos, Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia, Siam, Malacca, and the Interior.

When we direct our views to the central parts of the Chin-Indian region, the lights of geography become feebler and feebler, and at last entirely desert us.

Kingdom of Yangoma.

We are totally unable to fix the locality of the kingdom of Yangoma, which is governed by a Buddhist priesthood, abounds in rice, in the noble metals, in benzoin, in musk, which is exported from it to Ava, and above all, celebrated for the beauty and gallantry of its women, who are much in request with the voluptuous monarchs of the neighbouring countries. D'Anville's map places Yangoma near the sources of the western branch of the Meinam, or river of Siam. In other modern maps it is left out, as too uncertain to be admitted.

Country of Lac-Tho.

It is only by conjecture that we assign the situation of the country of Lac-Tho, which, according to a recent traveller, lies to the north of Laos, between Tonquin and China. According to this traveller, or rather the reports which he has collected, it is a table-land without rivers[a], but a moist soil,

[a] La Bissachère, Etat du Tonquin, I. p. 19.

BOOK LII.

abounding in bamboos, and laid out in rice fields[b]. This country, which contains no towns, exports buffaloes and raw cotton[c], in exchange for salt and silk manufactures. The people wear cotton stuffs and the bark of a particular tree; they labour under the unfortunate effects of a perpetual civil war, carried on among the hereditary chiefs to whom they are subject. Over these the king of Tonquin exercises a nominal sovereignty. Some of the Lac-Tho tribes are said to live in all the simplicity of a golden age; families possess their goods in common; the crops are left in the fields without protection; the doors of the houses are kept open day and night; strangers are welcomed, and treated with cordial hospitality; and passengers are allowed to make free use of the fruits as they go along[d]. This vague description obliges us to consider Lac-Tho as nothing else than Laos, under the Chinese appellation of Lac-Tchoo. Still it may be said, that we know not for certain that this Chinese term really applies to Laos. The map of d'Anville shows that he hesitated on that point.

Manners of the inhabitants.

A traveller possessing sufficient courage and address to find his way by the interior of the Birman dominions would make interesting discoveries, by directing his course to the east through the province of Yangoma, and penetrating the almost unknown territory called the kingdom of Laos. It lies north-east from Siam, and due north from Cambodia. According to received opinion, it is watered by a large river, and this is concluded to be the upper part of the river of Cambodia. The Dutch envoy Wusthof went up the river in a boat, and met with great cataracts[e]. Marini agrees with that traveller, and places the sources of this river in the Chinese province of Yunnan[f]. A Portuguese traveller went from China to Laos

Kingdom of Laos.

[b] La Bissachère, I. p. 246. p. 141.

[c] Ibid. p. 200. p. 75. [d] Ibid. II. 60, 61.

[e] Valentyn, Oud-und-Niew-Ostindien, IV. Description de Cambodje, p. 51.

[f] Marini, Relation du Royaume de Laos, ch. I.

by descending a river and crossing a lake[g]. M. de la Bissachère, in contradiction to these assertions, tells us, that in Laos there is no sort of river. Perhaps these differences will be reconciled by farther discoveries. Laos is separated from all the adjoining states by high mountains and thick forests. Respecting its fertility, accounts differ. La Bissachère says that a tenth part of the land is under cultivation, and that rice is the only produce[h]. Wusthof and Marini describe it as abounding in provisions both of the animal and vegetable kingdom. The rice which it produces is esteemed the best in all these countries. Leguminous crops are cultivated in great quantities. Many buffaloes are reared. For the gratification of luxury, it affords benzoin, musk, gold, and precious stones, especially rubies, topazes, and pearls. The gum lac of Laloo is above all so highly valued, that the merchants of Cambodia go thither in quest of it, although a very good article is produced in their own country. We are told that elephants are so plenty in the forests of Laos that the country derives its name from that circumstance. The greater part of the trade of these countries is in the hands of the Tonquinese and Chinese. But the Siamese were once in the practice of repairing to them in caravans of waggons drawn by buffaloes, making a journey of two months. Silks and salt are sold here. The latter article is said to have once brought its weight in gold[i].

Productions.

Marini says there are seven provinces, but does not give their names. Wusthof mentions three as governed by three vassal princes.

In the time of Kæmpfer, the principal towns of the country were called Lant-Shang (which Marini has converted into *Længione*) and Tsiamaya: to these our modern maps add Sandepora. The Chinese told Duhalde that the word *Mohang* signified a town in the language of

Towns and provinces.

[g] Jarric, Thesaurus Rerum Indicarum, I. lib. 2. ch. 25.

[h] La Bissachère, Etat du Tonquin, I. p. 147.

[i] Valentyn, p. 53.

BOOK LII.

Laos, and that the name of the capital was Mohang-Leng. This is probably the Lant-Shang of Kæmpfer, and the capital of the province of Lantkian mentioned in the report of the Dutch envoy. But this traveller calls the capital Winkian. It was surrounded with a wall of reddish stone; had a garrison of 50,000 men, and a splendid court.

M. de la Bissachère, on the contrary, says, that Laos contains only one small town called Tranmah, containing 4000 or 5000 Tonquinese and Chinese. From this we may conclude the whole of that missionary's account of Laos to be apocryphal, or only to apply to some small corner invaded by the king of Tonquin.

Inhabitants. The inhabitants seem to resemble the southern Chinese. Their complexions are olive. They have vigorous constitutions, a good physiognomy, and gentle and sincere dispositions; but are prone to superstition and debauchery. Hunting and fishing are almost their only occupations.

Government. The country is divided into several small kingdoms, subject to an absolute sovereign, who, according to old accounts, shows himself in public only twice in the year, and is generally the mere tool of his priests and ministers. The heads of families are also invested with great power.

Priesthood. The talapoins or priests, the chief of whom takes the title of *raja*, or king, stand in no awe of the civil authority, lead licentious lives, and oppress both the people and the nobles. But we must not give implicit credit to these assertions of Marini. According to the Dutch accounts, these talapoins indulged in bantering verses at the expense of the missionaries. "You see," said they, "that we are in possession of a very complete system of religion; pagodas with gilded spires, pyramids, images of deities covered with gold, and regular ceremonies of devotion. We, talapoins, are a powerful, rich, and happy priesthood: before you preach to us a change of religion, condescend to learn our language, wear our dress, live among us, follow our manners, join in our studies, enter our sacred orders; and when you have made this fair trial, you shall

be allowed to preach against us, and try to convert us to your faith." BOOK LII.

M. de la Bissachère says that at present Laos acknowledges the sovereignty of the king of Tonquin.

To the east of Laos, and to the south of the Chinese provinces of Yunnan and Koansi, is the country which we call the kingdom of TONQUIN, bordering the gulf of the same name. Its true name is *Anam*, or *Aynam*[k]. Tonquin is the name of the capital. TONQUIN.

The Gulf of Tonquin, and the adjacent seas, are remarkable for dreadful whirlwinds, called *typhons*. After calm weather, they are announced by a small black cloud in the north-east part of the horizon, with a copper-coloured margin, which gradually brightens till it becomes white and brilliant. This alarming appearance often precedes the hurricane twelve hours. These dreadful winds seem to arise from the mutual opposition of the north wind coming down from the mountains of the continent, and the south wind proceeding from the ocean. Nothing can exceed their fury. They are accompanied with dreadful thunder, lightning, and heavy rain. After five or six hours a calm succeeds; but the hurricane soon returns in the opposite direction, with additional fury, and continues for an equal interval[l]. The typhons of the Gulf of Tonquin.

According to the accounts of the missionaries, the climate of Tonquin is constantly refreshed by the south and north winds. Rain falls from April to August, and is followed by a beautiful and abundant vegetation. On the north and west the country is skirted by mountains. The centre and sea coast present one extensive plain, which seems to owe its origin to the alluvial depositions of the ocean and the rivers[m]. These low lands are protected from the encroachments of the sea by numerous and ex- Climate.

[k] Valentyn, Lettre d'un roi de Tonquin à un gouverneur de Batavia.

[l] Pennant's Outlines of the Globe, III. p. 76.

[m] La Bissachère, Etat du Tonquin, I. p. 46, &c.

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tensive embankments, and are very productive in rice. In several places the sand and mud form a thin half fluid mixture with the sea water, where the Tonquinese creep along in a half sitting attitude on planks, engaged in fishing. From May to September the rivers overflow their banks. The principal river is the Sang-Koi, called in China, where it rises, the Kotikiang. It receives the Li-Sien.

Productions.

The Tonquinese cultivate potatoes, yams, plantains, rice, mangos, lemons, cocoa nuts, and pine-apples. They have excellent silk. The Tonquin oranges are the best in the world. The tea tree grows in great plenty, but it is not applied to use. Iron-wood, and several other valuable timber trees, grow on the mountains, while the *areca* palm, or betel nut tree, the *Piper betle* or betel leaf vine, indigo, and sugar canes, enrich the plains. Sheep and asses are here unknown. The forests are peopled with tigers, deer, antelopes, and monkeys, and the fields are covered with cattle, buffaloes, hogs, and winged game.

Natural curiosities.

The natural history of this country consists of vague notices, furnished by ill informed missionares. When they boast of the wild bees, which, like those of Brazil, furnish a limpid and fragrant honey; when they complain of the devastations of the white ant; or the swarms of serpents which infest this marshy country, we recognise the stamp of truth in their artless descriptions. But, when they tell us that they saw monkeys which sung with all the melody of the nightingale [n], we must suspect at least an illusion of imagination or of memory.

The mineral kingdom presents iron in a very pure state, abundance of good copper, some tin, and gold, and a metal which, from the qualities ascribed to it, appears to be zinc in the state of muriate or arseniate [o]. The numerous caverns filled with stalactites indicate the calcareous nature of many of the mountains.

Towns.

The capital of Anam is called Don-Kin, or "the Court

[n] La Bissachère, I. p. 94. [o] Ibid. I. p. 53.

of the East," which we have converted into Tonquin. It has now taken the official name of Bac-Kin, or "the Court of the North," but is commonly known by the people under the name of Kescho. It stands on the river Sang-Koï, 110 miles from the sea, and is said to equal Paris in size[p], though it only contains 40,000 inhabitants[q], a great proportion of the ground being taken up with wide streets and gardens. The palaces of the king and mandarins are the only buildings formed of so durable a material as sun-dried brick, and those of the sovereign are distinguished by the form of squares. Besides the capital, there are the cities of Han-Vints of 20,000 inhabitants; Tranash of 15,000; Kausang of 8000; Hun-Nam of 5000; the last being the same with Hean, where the Dutch had their factory. In the cultivated part of the country the villages are close together, and the highway presents an uninterrupted succession of houses and gardens planted with the various palms. Of the provinces, we shall only particularize Boschin, on the Chinese boundary.

Government. History.

Tonquin, separated from China in 1368, preserved those forms of patriarchal despotism which distinguish the great nations of Asia. Rank, honours, and wealth, are concentrated in the mandarins, literary and military. The "king's men" form a race superior to the rest of the nation. The dynasty of Lé governed for many ages with all the wisdom and all the benignity that despotism can admit of. But one of the great officers of the crown, the Shooa or Shuarua, a sort of mayor of the palace, having become hereditary, and placed himself at the head of the army and of the principal revenues, soon reduced the *bova* or king to the mere shadow of a monarch. Cochin-China was separated, and it formed, under the dynasty of N'guyen, a kingdom first tributary to Tonquin and afterwards its rival. The civil wars which broke out about the middle of last century, on the succession of a Shooa, gave the king an opportunity of resuming the supreme power. With

[p] Richard, Hist. du Tonquin, I. p. 36.

[q] La Bissachère, I. 73.

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a view to revive his claims to Cochin-China, he interfered in the internal revolutions of that country, and, with warm though interested zeal, attacked the usurpers of the throne of N'guyen. One of these usurpers in revenge invaded Tonquin, where he destroyed the house of Lé, and established himself in the sovereignty, retaining also that of the greater part of Cochin-China. The rightful heir of the latter, however, succeeded, by dint of perseverance, in re-conquering his kingdom; and, pursuing the usurpers into the heart of Tonquin, made himself master of that country, which he kept, under the pretext that the house of Lé was extinct. Thus, this prince, Ong-N'guyen-Shoong, the Shang-Shong of some authors, now reigns over all the ancient kingdom of Annam, to which he has added Lac-Tho, Laos, and Cambodia. But the national hatred of the Cochin-Chinese against the Tonquinese; the insubordination of Laos and other parts of the interior; the supposed existence of an heir to the house of Lé; and the death of the princes who were the immediate heirs of the throne of N'guyen-Shoong, are circumstances which compel us to regard the Annamitic empire as a mere passing meteor.

Empire of Annam.

The Tonquinese.

The Tonquinese have flat and oval countenances, lighter complexions than the other Indian nations, and black, long, and thick hair. Their whole dress consists of a robe which reaches their heels. Their monosyllabic language is derived from the Chinese, from which, however, it is distinguished by the possession of a number of compound words, and by aspirate and hissing sounds, which are wanting in the Chinese[r]. The Tonquinese have also changed the Chinese written character, or perhaps they have preserved one which has gone into disuse in China. Their literature is supposed to be rich in works of eloquence. For six centuries they have committed the history of their country to writing. Though less refined than the Chinese, this nation seems to possess a greater degree

r Alex. Rhodes, Dictionarium Anamiticum. Roma, 1653. Hervas, Saggio Pratico, p. 134. Valentyn, Descript. du Tonquin, p. 6.

of moral vigour. They have exhibited an impetuous bravery, and their history records some splendid instances of heroism and generosity. They are described as hospitable, faithful in friendship, and entertaining great respect for civil justice[s]; yet are accused of vanity, fickleness, dissimulation, and revenge[t]. Living under an absolute despotism, the Tonquinese have probably few virtues and few vices but what are common to them with their neighbours. Their army, which amounts to 100,000 men, often beats the Chinese. Their navy, consisting of 200 galleys, is remarkable for nothing, except the employment of a sort of Grecian fire which burns under water[u]. Sea and land forces.

Here, as in China, the monarch annually celebrates a festival in honour of agriculture. Polygamy exists in all its latitude. No woman claims the rights generally attached to matrimony, and they are discarded by the men at pleasure. The marriages are made without priests, but the consent of parents is essential. Barrenness is here a great reflection on any family, but the mixture of many children of different mothers occasions no inconvenience[x]. The pomp of the burials, the elegance of the coffins, the superstitious selection of particular situations for graves, and the festivals in honour of ancestors; every thing, in short, reminds us of the funeral solemnities of the Chinese. They are fond of scenic representations of the comic sort, dances, and cocking matches. They have also among them some dramas of a tragic nature. Laws and customs.

The Tonquinese succeed in the manufacture of silk and cotton goods, muskets, porcelain, Chinese paper, varnished furniture, and hardware. Their foreign trade consists of silks of all sorts, painted calico, earthen vessels, medical drugs, musk, ginger, salt, dye-woods, aloe-wood, marble, alabaster, and varnished goods[y]. They keep up a great Manufactures. Commerce.

[s] La Bissachère, II. p. 36, &c.
[t] Marini, Relation du Tonquin, p. 64, 66, &c. (trad. Franç.)
[u] La Bissachère, I. 325.
[x] Marini, p. 155.
[y] Valentyn, p. 5, p. 31, &c.

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commercial correspondence with China. The Portuguese and Dutch, who attempted to form some commercial relations with Tonquin, were obliged to give them up; nor have the French been more fortunate. Since these attempts, their only connection with Europeans has consisted of some visits made by the English merchants of Madras, who have not followed up that intercourse with any steadiness. The Jesuit missionaries were completely expelled in 1772.

COCHIN-CHINA.

To the south of Tonquin we find COCHIN-CHINA, the geography of which has been rendered obscure by the number of contradictory authors who have treated of it. This country, which was included along with Tonquin under the general name of Annam, was separated from it 600 years ago. It is uncertain under what name it was particularly designated, or is now by its own inhabitants. That of *Annam* is too extensive. That of *Quinam*, mentioned as the name of the kingdom by a good observer[z], seems to belong only to the principal province[a]. The Japanese call the country to the west of China Cotchin-Djina, and the Europeans have followed them. But a new question rises here. What are the limits of that country? The nature of the lands, and the limits occupied by a particular nation, have made the Europeans confine their application of the name of Cochin-China, or *Southern Annam*, to the coast lying between Tonquin and Tsiompa, 300 miles in length, and varying from thirty to seventy in breadth. We shall not deviate from this convenient application of the term. If recent, and perhaps temporary conquests, have subjected the coasts of Cambodia to the king of Cochin-China, the name may still be employed with propriety to distinguish a nation which, as well as their country, is essentially different from the other. The geography of the provinces is still less satisfactory. Those who follow some

Uncertainties about its name.

Uncertainty of the international divisions.

[z] Wusthof, in Valentyn, IV. Description de Cambodia, p. 52, 53.

[a] Alex. de Rhodes, Relation du Tonquin, au comm.

modern travellers, in extending Cochin-China to the Cape of Cambodia, divide it into three parts—the *high*, the *middle*, and the *low* [b]; or (to use the native names) the province of *Hué*; that of *Shang*, which is said to reach from the 12th to the 16th degree of latitude; and that of *Donnaï*, which is identical with low Cambodia. Ancient travellers give Cochin-China a much more complicated, yet probably a more correct, though obscure division; in which we have attempted to fix the following provinces, proceeding from north to south.

Provinces and towns.

Hué, Hoé [c]; or Toan Hoa [d], separated from Tonquin by a narrow defile, which is closed up by a wall, contains a large city, with a royal fortified castle, the ordinary residence of the reigning monarch. This city, with a population of 30,000 souls, bears the name of Ke-Hoa in the popular dialect, and of Foo-Shooang in the language of the mandarins. The province of Quambin is in the mountains.

That of Shang, (or, in the Portuguese orthography, Ciam [e],) less extensive by two-thirds than modern accounts represent it, contains the magnificent bay of Turon, frequented by the junks of the Chinese and other nations, surrounded by a picturesque and fruitful country, and receiving the waters of a river on which is situated the city of Tai-Foo, the centre of the commerce of Cochin-China [f]. It was in the mountains of the south-west of Tai-Foo that the Dutch travellers met with the province or tributary principality of Tiam or Thiem, removed by d'Anville 160 miles to the north-west, because this geographer was not aware that Laos, from which Thiem has been disjoined, extends a great way south, between Cambodia and Cochin-China, coming almost in contact with Tsiompa [g]. On the sea shore we find the province of Quan-hia (or Quan-sia) with the city of Banbong. Next comes the rich and fine

[b] La Bissachère, I. p. 25. Barrow's Voyage to Cochin-China.
[c] Valentyn, Descript. du Tonquin, IV. p. 2. [d] Alex. de Rhodes, l. c.
[e] D'Anville's Map of Asia. Valentyn, l. c. [f] Barrow's Voyage.
[g] Wusthof, in Valentyn. Descript. de Cambodia, p. 53.

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province of Quinam, or Quin-Nong[a], with the city of the same name, containing 10,000 souls, and situated on the bay of Shin-shen. This is the ancient capital of the whole kingdom. The province Foy of the Dutch is called Phayn by the missionaries. In that of Niaron we find the city of Din-Foan, probably the same with Qui-Foo, mentioned as a large town by a modern traveller[b]. The province of Niatlang forms the southern extremity of Cochin-China. Raman, which d'Anville substitutes for this province, is merely a country town; and the two districts of Dingoë and Dihheut belong to the province of Hué.

Coasts of Cochin-China.

There is no shore that suffers more perceptible encroachments from the sea than that of Cochin-China. M. Poivre found that, from 1744 to 1749, the sea had gained 190 feet from east to west. The rocks in the southern provinces are in unstratified masses, generally granite, and sometimes with perpendicular fissures. In the middle of the river of Hué-Hane, three miles up, there is an island of sand, from the centre of which rises a large and magnificent alabaster rock, which in several places is perforated quite across. It has got the name of the "Hill of Apes." The coast generally presents sandy shores. In such places the anchoring ground extends a great way out, and consists of a miry sand mixed with shells. In some parts the beach is strewed with rounded pebbles. Opposite to such places the anchorage is rocky and bad. In those situations in which the shores are mountainous and steep there are no soundings. It is opposite to the sandy parts that madrepores and coral are found in spots separated from one another by short distances.

Alluvial depositions.

The high country.

Nature has divided this country into two distinct portions, the plain and the mountains. These last enjoy a steady temperate climate; but to strangers they prove unhealthy, which has been supposed to be owing to an impregnation which the waters derive from decayed leaves and minerals. In these live the savage tribes called *Moys*

[a] The Quenia of Father Rhodes. [b] La Bissachère, I.

or *Kemoys*, who worship the sun, and employ magical charms to preserve their rice fields from the depredations of elephants. They abound in tigers and monkeys. They contain some iron mines, which are worked. Pure gold is also found among them, and silver has lately been discovered. The principal riches of the mountains are their forests, which produce rose-wood, iron wood, ebony, sappan, sandal wood, eagle wood, and calambac—the last of which sells in China for its weight in gold [k]. Biuh-Kiang is the place most favourable to the growth of the beautiful tree called *Aloëxylum verum*, from which is obtained the resinous aromatic concretion called calambac, or in Cochin-Chinese *kinam*. Paper is made of the bark of the same tree [l]. The common eagle-wood *(bois d'aigle)* is the produce of trees of the genus *Agallochum*. Other valuable substances are found here, such as gum lac, elaborated by insects on the *Croton laccifèrum*, and the *sanguis draconis*, obtained from various trees, the chief of which is the *Dracæna ferrea*; and the tallow tree, or *Sebifera glutinosa* of Loureiro, already mentioned [m].

The low country.

The plain is exposed to an insupportable degree of heat in the months of June, July, and August, except in the places which are refreshed by the sea breezes. In September, October, and November, the plentiful rains, which fall exclusively in the mountains, swell the numberless rivers with which the country is intersected; in an instant all the plain is inundated, the villages, and even the houses, are so many islets. Boats are navigated over the fields and hedges, and the children in small barks go out to fish for the mice, which cling to the branches of the trees. This is the season of inland commerce, large fairs, and popular fêtes; but the cattle are sometimes drowned, and are picked up by the first who finds them. In the months of De-

[k] Charpentier-Cossigny, mémoire inédit. cité par M. Blancard, Commerce des Indes et de la Chine, p. 344, &c.

[l] Loureiro, Memorias da lu Academ. das Sciencias da Lisbon, II. 205—213. Valentyn, and the notes on Barrow, in the French translation, written by the author of this work.

[m] See page 337.

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cember, January, and February, the north wind brings with it cold rains, which are the only symptoms of winter. This plain produces an immense quantity of rice, of which there is a double harvest, and which sells at less than a penny per pound; also maize, millet, several kinds of beans, and pumpkins; all the fruits of India and China, a great quantity of sugar canes, the juice of which, purified and formed into cakes, is exported to China[n], particularly from the province of Shang[o]; areca nuts, betel leaf, cotton, silk of good quality, tobacco, and indigo. The *Laurus myrrha*[p] gives a kind of cinnamon which, for its camphorated odour and saccharine flavour, is preferred among the Chinese to the cinnamon of Ceylon[q]. The tea of Cochin-China would be excellent, if the culture of it were more attended to. The plant called *dinaxang*, or green indigo, would of itself enrich any colony. The Cochin-Chinese have a small breed of horses; mules, asses, goats, and plenty of poultry. They derive a good aliment from *Salicorniæ*, *Arenariæ*, and other saline plants, and the different species of *Ulvæ* and *Fuci*, thrown out upon their shores. The sea affords them fish, different species of the mollusca, particularly *Holothuriæ* or *Bichos-domar*, which are greedily eaten by all the nations of the south-east of Asia. The islands of Cochin-China abound as much as any part of the eastern regions in the nests of the salangan swallow, or *hirundo esculenta*, which are so much in request among the epicures of China.

Inhabitants.

This country, where so many interesting articles of produce attract the commerce of Europe, is peopled by one of the most active and lively nations of Asia. Their small figures and olive complexions give them no high place in the scale of beauty. The common people follow the religion of Buddha; the mandarins study the writings of Confucius. The Catholic faith had made some progress, and the rising church, even in a political point of view, claimed

Their manners.

Religion.

[n] Barrow.
[o] Charpentier-Cossigny, loc. cit. p. 370.
[p] Loureiro, Memorias, I. 385.
[q] Blancard, loc. cit. p. 374.

the protecting care of the European powers: but now, the death of the prince, who was a pupil of the bishop of Adran, has left it without support in the midst of perils and of obstacles. Had the principles of that communion, and the governments which are under their influence, been more conspicuous for affording that generous tolerance of which they so greedily avail themselves when they take up their residence in other countries, they would be entitled to more sympathy under their difficulties than many readers will be inclined to give them. The vulgar tongue, though a dialect of the Chinese, is not understood in China. The written characters are nearly the same; but only a small number of them are known to us[r].—Persons of condition dress in silk. In manners they display all the politeness of the Chinese. The costume of both sexes consists of flowing robes with wide sleeves, under which are vests and trousers of cotton. The men wear a sort of turban on the head, and use no shoes or slippers. Their houses are built of bamboo, and roofed with reeds and rice straw. They are generally surrounded with groves of orange and lemon trees, bananas, and cocoas. The Cochin-Chinese manufacture a spirituous liquor from rice, for their own use. They are tolerably skilful in the manufacture of hardware, and their pottery and stone wares are handsome. In music they have made some progress. Lord Macartney, during his stay at Turon, witnessed a sort of historic opera, containing recitations, airs, and choruses. Their ships are elegantly formed, the largest being about sixty tons burden. The form of their sails is admirably adapted for going near the wind, being constructed on the principles of a fan, which is opened and shut in a moment. The rowers move in time to the notes of a lively song. The ceremonies and festivals proclaim the Chinese origin of the nation. When the sovereign dies, they make a point of burying him in profound silence, for fear of conveying the important intelligence to genii hostile

Manufactures and arts.

[r] Adelung, Mithridates, I. p. 90.

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to the empire, who might seize on such a moment to visit it with new disasters[a].

Historical events.

We have already mentioned that Cochin-China formed in ancient times one state with Tonquin. But a rebellious governor afterwards erected here an independent kingdom. His successors subdued Tsiompa and Cambodia. But, enervated by the enjoyments attached to despotism, the princes of the dynasty of N'guyen allowed their favourites and ministers to oppress the people; and becoming in a little the puppets of their slavish courtiers, they held the sceptre on a most precarious tenure. The Tonquinese interfered in the troubles with which Cochin-China was agitated. Disdaining a foreign yoke, the three brothers, *Tay-Son*, employed their influence to raise an army: from deliverers they became usurpers, and took possession of the kingdom. One of these rebels also achieved the conquest of Tonquin. He died in 1792, and his extensive dominions were divided among his sons. The lawful prince, taking refuge with the king of Siam, endeavoured to form a party in the southern portion of the kingdom. The

The bishop of Adran.

bishop of Adran, who, from being a missionary, had become vicar apostolic and prime minister to the rightful sovereign of Cochin-China, craved assistance from France. He brought over to that country the heir of the crown, whom he had secretly converted, without venturing to baptize him. France seized this opportunity to establish her influence and her commerce in one of the richest countries of India, but was prevented from following up that object by the events of her own revolution. The bishop and young prince returned, attended by a small number of French,

King N'guyen Shoong.

but the boldness and perseverance of N'guyen-Shoong at last conciliated the smiles of fortune. The dissensions which reigned in the family of Tay-Son aided him in recovering the inheritance of his fathers. To these he added Tonquin, and he now reigns over all the Chin-Indian countries to the east of the kingdom of Siam. An intre-

[a] Kæffler, Historica Cochin-Chinæ Descriptio, p. 72—76.

pid warrior by land and sea, he gained admiration for his talents, his correct manners, his humanity, and a generosity unknown to Asiatics. These virtues were partly the fruits of the education given to him by the bishop of Adran, and partly the effect of the events of his life. When arrived at the summit of prosperity, he showed himself to be less worthy; and, as we have already remarked, the death of his heirs, and the discontent of the Tonquinese, portend no long duration to the Annamitic empire[t].

Government and military force.

The form of government has always been despotic. The sovereign is styled "the king of heaven." His army is from 100,000 to 150,000 strong, among whom are 30,000 armed with muskets, and trained to the European exercise. The soldiers wear sabres and pikes of enormous length. No elephants are now employed in war. A Portuguese, who was shipwrecked on the coast of Cochin-China, cast some pieces of brass ordnance, which are still in existence. Some Frenchmen, among whom was M. Olivier, have assisted the present king in the formation of a respectable navy. He has himself, like Peter the Great, studied the art of ship-building, by causing a European vessel to be taken to pieces under his eyes. This prince has been seen directing the manœuvres of 1200 galleys, a hundred of which carried from sixteen to twenty-four large guns. But when he got the better of all his enemies, he allowed this branch of his force, which is so essential and so well adapted to the local situation of his dominions, to fall into neglect.

Kingdom of Tsiompa.

The kingdom of Tsiompa is more the country of tigers and of elephants than of men. Its real name is said to be *Bin-Tuam*[u]. For five or six months of the year the climate is unhealthy; the heats are excessive, the water is bad, and all provisions except fish are scarce. The soil is

[t] La Bissachère, Barrow, &c.

[u] Rosily, Carte du Dépôt de la Marine, and the article *Aynan* in the Dictionnaire de Géographie Maritime, par M. de Grand-Pré.

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sandy and poor, but it produces cotton, indigo, and an inferior sort of silk [x]. The inhabitants are called Loyes, and seem to be of the same stock with the Laos, or Lows, and the Lolos of Yunnan. They are large, well made, and muscular; their complexions ruddy; their noses rather flat; and their hair long and black.

Donnaï.

Donnaï, properly so called, seems to be a district between Tsiompa and the mouths of the river of Cambodia. On an arm of that large, fine, and deep river, is the city of Saigong, which was for some time the naval arsenal of the king of Cochin-China [y]. In approaching that city, we sail forty miles up a river one or two miles broad, and so deep, that large vessels graze the verdant banks, while their rigging is liable to get entangled in the branches of the lofty trees by which it is shaded [z]. Cape Saint-Jacques, at the mouth of the river, forms a very good roadstead.

The Paracels.

The Pracel or Paracels, is a labyrinth of islets, rocks, and shallows, which, according to the most approved charts, extend in a line parallel to the coast of Cochin-China, between north latitude 10° 45′ and 16° 30′, the mean longitude being about 109° east. But some French navigators have crossed a part of this space without encountering any rocks or shallows, whence we must conclude that this archipelago is in reality less extensive than it appears in our maps [a].

Condor island.

The island called Poolo-Condor, or "the Island of Calabashes," is situated south from Cochin-China, forty-four miles from the mouth of the river of Cambodia. It is, properly speaking, a group of islands, among which is a harbour capable of holding eight ships, and a good and ex-

[x] La Bissachère, I. p. 16. Barrow's Voyage, where it is written Fen-Tan.

[y] Rosily, cité par Blancard, Commerce des Indes, p. 361.

[z] Barrow's Voyage.

[a] Rosily, Carte du Dépôt de la Marine, and the article *Ayuan* in Grand-Pré's Dictionnaire de Géographie Maritime.

tensive anchorage. Here vessels bound to China purchase provisions, especially buffaloes, which sometimes weigh seven quintals, and Chinese pigs. It produces rice and several fruits, especially bananas, shaddocks, and calabashes. It is a place well adapted for a military and commercial station.

Kingdom of Cambodia.

Of the kingdom of Cambodia we have few authentic accounts, and none of modern date. The Portuguese call it Camboja, (pronounced Cambokha.) A letter of one of its kings, in a Dutch translation, has it *Camboctsja*, (pronounced *Cambootjä*[b].) This also is the orthography of the Malay authors[c].

This country seems to consist of three physical regions: the valley watered and inundated by the Mey-Kon, including some large islands at its mouth[d]; the deserts, which probably begin on the borders of the inundated territory, and extend a great way to the east; and lastly, the sea coast, generally low, sandy, covered with coppice-wood, and washed by a very shallow sea[e].

River of Cambodia.

The river of Cambodia falls into the sea by three mouths; that of Saigong, already mentioned, and which, according to the missionaries, is more particularly called the river of Cambodia[f]; one called the Japanese river, from being frequented by the junks of Japan; and a third, which the Dutch have called *Onbequame*, or "the Inconvenient." The second of these branches also receives the name of the Bassak, and the third, that of the Matsiam[g]. The tides extend a great way up this river. It is said that a great lake or inland sea is connected with these mouths. The inundations take place in June. The beds of the two western branches are full of low islands and sand banks, which render them unfit for being navigated by large vessels.

[b] Valentyn, Description de Cambodia, p. 48.
[c] Ibid. p. 36.
[d] Aagenaar, in the Voyages of the Dutch Company, V. p. 360.
[e] Chapman, Annales des Voyages, VII. p. 15.
[f] Valentyn, Ibid. 37, 38.
[g] Relation des Vicaires Apostol. I. ch. I. p. 8.

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The country is indifferently peopled. The capital, which we call Cambodia, but the true name of which is Eeuvok, consists of a single street, with one large temple.

Towns. Productions.

The chief production of the country is the well known yellow pigment called gamboge, which is also used in medicine as a drastic purgative. It produces considerable quantities of ivory, rose-wood, sandal-wood, eagle-wood, and calambac. The teak, iron-wood, and *callophyllum*, which grows as straight as the Norwegian pine, might supply ample materials for ship building. A little tin and gold are exported. The lands produce rice and other vegetable food. Many Japanese, Chinese, and Malays are settled in the country. These last are scarcely distinguishable from the natives, who have dark yellow complexions, and long black hair.

A Dutch traveller, ascending the river to the north of Cambodia, passed the towns of Batjong, an ancient seat of royalty, and Sumbapoor, the residence of a high priest, who assumes the title of raja, and exacts a toll from passengers [h]. M. Poivre observes, that a short way from the capital are to be seen the ruins of an ancient city, the architecture of which shows something of the European style, while the ridges in the adjoining fields indicate that they have been under tillage. The present inhabitants have no sort of tradition respecting this ancient establishment.

Ancient city.

State of Ponthiamas.

Ponthiamas, a small independent state, was founded in 1705 by a Chinese merchant of the name of Kiang-Si. This state prospered under a flourishing trade. Its capital, which receives the same name, is situated on the west coast of Cambodia, which had previously been almost a desert.

Kingdom of Siam.

A wide and deep gulf divides the southern part of Chin-India into two peninsulas. At the bottom of that gulf we find the famous kingdom of Siam, from which the gulf de-

[h] Wusthof, in Valentyn, p. 54 and 55.

rives its name. The name which the Siamese give themselves is *Tai*, or "Free Men." Siam is a name of Malay origin. Previously to the recent enlargement of the Birman empire, the rich and flourishing monarchy of Siam was considered as the leading Indian state east of the Ganges. Its extent, however, has been curtailed by the Birman invasions, and cannot be, at present, fixed with accuracy. It is probable that a part of the coast south from Tenasserim, on the west side of the peninsula of Malacca, still belongs to Siam. It is separated from Pegu on the west by a chain of mountains; on the east another chain, little known, separates it from Laos and Cambodia. Thus the kingdom of Siam may be considered as a wide valley between two chains of mountains.

Rivers. Inundations.

The Siamese Nile, or Meinam, holds a high rank among the rivers of eastern Asia. Kæmpfer describes it as very deep, always filled to its banks, and larger than the Elbe. He adds, that the inhabitants suppose it to rise in the same mountains with the Ganges, and describe it as dividing and sending branches through the kingdoms of Cambodia and Pegu; accounts which, though fabulous, include perhaps some disfigured truths. The inundation takes place in September. In December the waters decline. It differs from the Ganges in swelling first in its upper part, owing its inundations principally to the rains which fall among the mountains. The water of the Meinam, though muddy, is agreeable and wholesome: the inundation is most remarkable in the centre of the kingdom, and much less so in the neighbourhood of the sea. The operations of the rice harvest are conducted in a great measure in boats. The soil of the mountains is dry and barren; but the river banks consist of a rich and deep alluvial soil, where scarcely a single stone or pebble is to be found. The banks of the Meinam are low and marshy, but exceedingly populous from Bankok to Yuthia. Lower down they are mere deserts, swarming with monkeys, phosphoric flies, and mosquitoes. The Siamese year is, with respect to weather, divided into three parts. The first two months,

Seasons.

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December and January, form the winter, during which the north wind prevails: it is a dry season, but almost as warm as the summer is in France. The third, fourth, and fifth months, are called by the Siamese their little summer; the great summer consists of the other seven. The weather in summer is moist [i].

Vegetable and animal productions.

The immense forests which surround the valley of the Meinam contain some valuable kinds of wood, which are vaguely mentioned by the missionaries. The bark of the tree *tonki* is used for making paper. The wood of the *fuang* tree forms a good red dye. They have three varieties of rice; wild rice, mountain rice, and that of the plain. Among the different kinds of cotton, there is one too fine to admit of being spun. The lands which are so situated as not to admit of inundation are under corn crops. Pease, and other leguminous species, are abundant; maize is cultivated only in the gardens.

The animal species of Siam are common to it with the whole of the neighbouring countries. Its elephants are celebrated for their beauty and docility. The white ones are held in veneration, because the Siamese believe that the souls of their deceased sovereigns pass into their bodies. The horses are bad, and the cattle scarce. There is here a small sort of panther of the size of a dog, which only attacks wild birds. Wild boars and monkeys are in great abundance. The birds and insects of this country are remarkable for their huge size. The *nocto* is larger than an ostrich. All travellers speak in terms of admiration of certain birds, the species of which are not determined, whose tufts of white or red feathers enliven, like so many brilliant flowers, the verdure of the woods [k]. The Meinam is sometimes infested with venomous serpents. The trees on its banks are covered with phosphoric flies, which emit and retain light with all the regularity of a revolving machine. But the fine objects which this scene presents never banish from the traveller's mind the recollection of the

[i] Loubère, tome I. p. 53. [k] Choisy, Voyage à Siam, 1711, in 12mo. p. 229.

numerous crocodiles with which the river abounds, which are sometimes fifty feet in length.

Minerals.

The principal mines of Siam are those of tin and copper, the last of which is sometimes mixed with a little gold. Antimony and lead are also found and exported. The country produces beautiful marbles, agates, and sapphires.

Towns and provinces.

The topography of a country, the interior of which has not been traversed by any European, is, of course, very defective. The capital is called by the natives *Siyuthia*, or simply *Crung*, *i. e.* "the court." The Portuguese have changed the name Siyuthia into *Juthya* and *Odia*. That town embraces a large territory occupied with cottages and gardens. But the view given of it by Loubère must be somewhat modified. Father Gervaise tells us that the foreigners' quarter is full of brick houses; and that the part occupied by the natives contains handsome paved streets[1]. The judicious traveller Kæmpfer expressly says that "the temples are more elegant than the churches are in Germany. The Puka-Thon is a pyramid in a plain to the north-west of the city, in memory of a famous victory gained over the king of Pegu. Its height is 120 feet, and the building massive but elegant. In the eastern part of the city are two squares, surrounded with walls, and separated by a canal. It contains monasteries, colonnades, and temples, the most conspicuous being the temple of Berklam, with a large and splendid porch, ornamented with statues, sculptures, and other decorations."

The Locach of Marco Polo.

Louvok, a populous town on the great river, frequently shares with Siyuthia the honour of being the residence of the court. This is probably the Locach of Marco Polo: he arrived there from Poolo-Condor by sailing along the eastern shore of the gulf of Siam, and, leaving Louvok, he directed his course along the western shore of the gulf to Petani or Patan. An explanation so natural would have occurred to all his commentators, if they had not found the name written in several editions *Bocach*. Near the mouth

[1] Gervaise, Hist. de Siam.

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of the river we find Bankok, called in the country *Fou.* This is the key of Siam, in the direction of the sea. Its environs are embellished with delightful gardens. Above the capital we find Porselooc, the chief town of an ancient principality of the same name, famous for its dye-woods and valuable gums [m]. Cambouri, on the frontier of Pegu, is the seat of a great commerce in eagle-wood, ivory, and rhinoceros horns. From this place comes the finest varnish.

That part of the kingdom of Siam which lies on the Bay of Bengal, is an ancient conquest of the Siamese from the kings of Pegu. Here the Birman language is spoken [n]. The Birmans have reconquered Tenasserim, with its port Mergui, and the island of Junkseylon; places which have, on that account, been already described [o]. But the Siamese still retain the kingdom of Ligor on that coast, a country which yields a very pure tin called *calin* [p].

The Siamese.

In physical qualities the Siamese make an approach to the Mongolian race. Their faces are of a square form, with wide and prominent cheek bones; so that the cheeks themselves appear somewhat hollow [q]. The forehead is narrow, terminating in a point almost like a chin. Their eyes are small, rather dull, and rise towards the temples. The white of the eye is exceedingly yellow. The width of their mouths, and the thickness and paleness of their lips, give them a singularly ugly aspect. They are in the practice of blackening their teeth, and partially covering them with gold plates. Their complexions are olive, with a mixture of red. Kæmpfer compares them to negroes, and even to monkeys [q]. Their monosyllabic language has not been carefully examined. The Siamese alphabet contains thirty-seven consonants; and the vowels form a distinct list. It contains the letters R and W, which are unknown to the Chinese. The pronunciation, as in other ancient languages, is a sort of chant. Neither

Language.

[m] Turpin, Hist. de Siam I. p. 23.
[n] Le P. Gervai e, p. 11, &c.
[o] See page 353.
[p] Kæmpfer, Hist. du Japon, I. p. 11.
[q] Idem, I. p. 29. Loubère, I. p. 81.

nouns nor verbs have inflexions[r]. The sacred books, like those of the Birmans, are in the Pali language. BOOK III.

Manners.

The manners of the Siamese resemble partly those of Indostan, and partly those of China. Polygamy is allowed. The princes sometimes marry their own sisters. The wife, humble and submissive, neither presumes to sit nor to eat with her husband: vigilant and attentive in the preparation of his food, she does not eat till he has finished. She never goes out in the same boat with him, and even when lying on one common bed, she has a lower pillow to mark her inferiority.

Their funerals bear a great resemblance to those of the Chinese. The talapoins, or monks, chant hymns in the Pali language. When the solemn procession is ended, the body is burned on a pile of valuable fragrant wood. The tombs are in the form of pyramids, and those of the kings are of large dimensions both in height and breadth.

Public amusements.

The Siamese are fond of dramatic exhibitions, founded on their sacred mythology, and the fabulous history of their heroes. They have bull races, aquatic boat-fights, combats of elephants, cock-fightings, contests of human strength, wrestling matches, rope dances, religious processions, illuminations, and beautiful fire-works. Their mechanical talents lie dormant from their habitual indolence. In iron and steel manufactures they are far behind, but excel in jewellery, and in miniature painting. The common people are employed in fishing, and other labours, for subsistence. The higher classes divide their time between inactivity and the tricks of a petty commerce.

Industry.

Commerce.

Their chief commercial connections are with Japan, China, Indostan, and the Dutch. Their exports consist of grain, cotton, benzoin, sandal wood, and different other woods; antimony, tin, lead, iron, loadstone, impure gold, silver, sapphires, emeralds, agates, rock crystal, and marble[s]. To these is to be added *tombac*, which, according

[r] Loubère, II. p. 91.

[s] Van Vliet. Account of the Kingdom of Siam, p. 62, (in Dutch.)

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to some, is a native copper containing gold; according to others, an artificial compound [t]. They have also shagreen skins, nicely dressed and ornamented with figures, which form a valuable article of export, sometimes sold at enormous prices.

Religion and laws.

Sommona-Codom, the god of the Siamese, is the same as Buddha. His priests and monks, whom we call talapoins, are called *jankoo* in the language of the country. His precepts, contained in a book called *Vinac*, are neither many nor rigorous: but the civil laws are severe and bloody. Slavery here is perpetuated by birth, except in the case of prisoners of war, and persons enslaved in consequence of debt, whose children are considered free. Enslaved debtors are also themselves free as soon as they have fulfilled their engagements.

Government.

The government of Siam is despotic and hereditary. The sovereign, as among the Birmans, receives almost divine honours. Three times in the day he presents himself for an instant before his great officers, who prostrate themselves on the ground [u]. There is no hereditary nobility to share the awful dignity of the crown. The monarch, when he pleases, may marry his own sisters, and even his daughters. But the power of this monarch seems to have suffered diminution in proportion to the increase of his courtly pomp. His revenues were said to have fallen a century ago, from a proportion of forty to four or five. According to a census taken at that period, the adults of both sexes amounted to 1,900,000, which would give a population of between three and four millions. Loubère says that in his time there was no army except some royal guards; and Mandelslo reckons the number which could be raised on emergency to be about 60,000, with 3000 or 4000 elephants. These estimates indicate a scanty population. The navy was composed of a certain number of galleys of different sizes, the chief merit of which consisted in their rich decorations. The rivers of

Army.

[t] Dalrymple, Oriental Repertory, I. p. 118.

[u] Van Vliet, p. 19.

Chin-India have, in civil wars, been frequently the theatre of naval battles. BOOK LII.

The history of the Siamese has its chasms, but is not loaded with any fabulous chronology. Their era goes back to the pretended disappearance of their god Sommona-Codom, 544 years before Christ. Their first king began his reign in the 1300th year of their era, or about A. D. 756. Wars with Pegu, and usurpations of the throne, constitute the sad and uniform epochs of the Siamese history subsequently to the discovery of the country by the Portuguese. In 1568 the king of Pegu made war on them, which was said by historians to be on account of two white elephants which the Siamese refused to deliver to him; but probably the chief motive was to reconquer the coasts of Bengal Bay, which had been dismembered from his dominions by the Siamese. For want of attention, the politics of the Asiatics are sometimes supposed to be more absurd than they really are. After scenes of carnage on both sides, Siam became tributary to Pegu. But in 1620 Raja Hapi delivered his country from that state of servitude. In 1680 Constantine Phalcon, a native of Cephalonia in Greece, having become a favourite with the king of Siam, opened a trade with France, with the view of supporting his ambitious designs; but, during the king's last illness, the grandees of the court ordered him to be beheaded, and the connection with France was consequently broken off. The Birmans have not been able to reduce the Siamese to a state of permanent subjection. History. Constantine Phalcon.

To the south-east of the kingdom of Siam lies the PENINSULA OF MALACCA or Malaya, 550 miles long, and from eighty to 110 broad. PENINSULA OF MALACCA.

The interior of this peninsula seems to be entirely occupied with vast natural forests. No maps, ancient or modern, describe it as containing towns or villages. In the year 1644, Governor Van Vliet, to whom we are indebted for a good account of Siam, attempted to send detachments into the interior. The level parts were covered with un- Attempts to explore the interior.

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derwood, where it was necessary to open a road with the hatchet; and with marshes, in which the natives alone were able to get along over the trunks of felled trees[x]. When an eminence is gained, the eye is delighted with beautiful trees; but among these trees, brambles, thorns, and creeping plants, are so closely interwoven as often to present an insurmountable obstacle to the progress of the traveller. In these forests musquitoes fly in swarms like thick clouds. At every step there is a risk of treading on a poisonous serpent. Leopards, tigers, and rhinoceroses, when disturbed in their native haunts, are ready to devour any traveller who is not provided with a strong escort, and who does not keep up a fire during the whole night. Nor is an escort easily commanded. The Malays, a hundred times more dangerous than the tigers and the serpents, never attend a European but with great reluctance. Even those who were subject to Dutch authority often seized the first opportunity to betray the persons whom they had been employed to conduct. In 1745 Van der Putten, a zealous traveller, undertook, with a detachment furnished to him by Governor Albinus, to penetrate to Mount *Ophir*, called in Malay, Goonong-Lelang, situated near the sources of the river Moar, in the south-east of Malacca; but as soon as he quitted his boat, his escort gradually took to flight, and he could not accomplish his undertaking.

Journey of Van der Putten.

The parts best known produce pepper and other aromatics, and some species of gums. The forests, arrayed in eternal verdure, contain aloe-wood, eagle-wood, sandal-wood, and *cassia odorata*, a species of cinnamon. The air is impregnated with the odour of innumerable flowers, which perpetually succeed one another without an interval. But the uncultivated state of the country generates in many parts a highly noxious atmosphere, and occasions a general deficiency of human food. Fish, however, beans, and fruits, are found in this country[y]. The animal kingdom is little

Produc-tions.

[x] Balthasar Bort, MS. p. 103, quoted in the Memoirs of Batavia.

[y] Blancard, Commerce des Indes, p. 398.

known. Among the birds which seem to be numerous and extremely beautiful, the bird of Júno is mentioned, which, without the tail of the peacock, displays a plumage equal to his in elegance and in beauty [z]. The tiger, pursuing the antelopes over the rivers, sometimes falls a prey to the caïman [a]. From the hedgehog of Malacca is obtained the Malacca bezoar—from the wild elephants plenty of ivory. Tin is the only mineral substance exported, though gold is found in some of the rivers. The tin mines of Pera are found in valleys. After large roots of trees, sometimes seven feet in depth, are removed, the ore is found in a fine black sand, which closely resembles it in appearance. When a rocky stratum appears, the digging is discontinued, although it also seems to contain the same ore, because the mining resources of the Malays are too confined to enable them to make their way through the rocks [b]. Sometimes the Chinese undertake the mining operations, and they are decidedly more expert than the natives in refining and smelting the metal.

Tin mines.

The maritime parts are divided into six Malay kingdoms; Patani, Tronganon, and Pahang, on the east coast; Johor at the southern extremity; Pera and Queda on the west side. To these we may add Malacca and its territory, called Malaya. In the interior, the state of Manang-Cabo is separated from the Dutch territory by the Romboon mountains.

Provinces or kingdoms.

In the time of Mandelslo, the city of Patani, inhabited by Malays and Siamese, was built of wood and cane, but the mosque was of brick, and the trade was in the hands of the Chinese and Portuguese, the natives being chiefly occupied in fishing and husbandry. According to this traveller, continual rains fall, accompanied with a north-east wind, during the months of November, December, and

Patani.

[z] Van Wurmb, Mem. de Batavia, p. 461.
[a] Valentyn, Malacca, p. 310.
[b] Memoirs of Batavia, IV. p. 558.

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January. Oxen and buffaloes were used for agricultural purposes, and crops of rice were cultivated. Fruit and game were abundant; the forests swarmed with monkeys, tigers, boars, and elephants.

Tronganon. Pahang.

A modern traveller praises Tronganon as a favourable mart for the purchase of pepper and of tin [c]. Pahang, (in Chinese Pang-Hang,) exports gold, areca nuts, and rattans [d]. The kingdom of Johor occupied the eastern extremity of this Chersonese. Batusaber, the capital of the kingdom, was situated sixteen miles from the sea, on the river Yohor, in a marshy soil. But at present this kingdom is in a state of vassalage to a piratical chief, who is called king of Riom, and resides in Poolo-Binlang Island, one of those which divide the strait of Sincapoor from that of Malacca. This strait derives its name from a Malay town, founded by the first colonies of that people after their emigration from Sumatra. Cape Romania, the southern point of Asia, is called in the country itself Oodjon Tana.

City of Malacca.

The city of Malacca, founded by a Malay prince about the middle of the thirteenth century, was in the hands of the Portuguese from 1511 till 1641, when the Dutch took it. According to le Gentil, this place, which once rivalled Goa and Ormuz, has now very little commercial importance, and is weakly fortified. But the marshes which render the approach difficult, the river Crysorant, which partly encircles it, and the solidity of the works of St. Paul, which are built of a regular iron-stone, render it capable of a long defence [e]. From 20,000 inhabitants, which it contained under the Portuguese, its population is reduced to 3000 or 4000. The suburb Tranquera is peopled with Chinese and persons of Portuguese extraction. Within the last half century some successful attempts have been made to cultivate the camphor tree in this neighbourhood, the

[c] Blancard, p. 328. [d] Mem. of Batavia, IV. p. 344.

[e] See the plate No. 37 in Valentyn, and the Memoirs of Batavia, IV. p. 325.

produce of which has somewhat re-animated a languishing commerce.

Pera, a kingdom rich in tin, is governed by Mahometan princes, who are withheld from working their mines by a superstitious fear of giving offence to the genii of the mountains. The adjoining state takes its name from the capital Queda, a town containing 8000 souls. It has a harbour, which is well frequented, and carries on a great trade in tin and elephant's teeth. Pera. Queda.

An English captain, having married the daughter of the king while he was on the coast of Queda, obtained the sovereignty of the island Poolo-Penang, which he, without delay, transferred to his country. The English call it Prince of Wales' Island, and have formed on it an important establishment, as the harbour is so situated as to command the strait of Malacca, while the soil is rich, covered with teak forests, sugar canes, and rice fields, and found well adapted to the cultivation of pepper and indigo[f]. Poolo-Penang, or Prince of Wales' Island.

In our general view of the races of mankind, we have distinguished the Malays as the model of the fifth variety of our species. That people is not indigenous in the peninsula of Malacca, but one of their tribes invaded and colonized it in the 12th century, having fled from the territory on the river Malaya, in the island of Sumatra, before the victorious armies of a king of Java. This tradition has now been completely confirmed by the investigations of Messrs. Leyden and Marsden, according to whom, the Malays form the indigenous population of Sumatra, and probably also of Java. They belong, therefore, to the fifth great division of the world, Oceanica, which is to be described in the six following books.

[f] Sir Home Popham's Description of Prince of Wales's Island, 1805. Howison, Extract in the Ephemerides of Weimar, XVIII. p. 129.

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Table of the Chief Geographical Positions of Chin-India.

Places.	N. Lat.	E. Long.	Authorities.
	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Cape Negrais . . .	. . .	. . .	Dalrymple.
Mergui	12 12	98 18 15	Forest.
Prince of Wales' Island	5 30	99 55 15	Popham.
Malacca	2 12	102 5 15	Batavian Memoirs.
Cape Romania . . .	1 30	104 5 15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Tronganon	5 25	. . .	Blancard.
Capital of Siam . .	14 20 40	100 50 15	Idem.
Condor Island . . .	8 40	106 31 52	Connaiss. des Tems.
Saigong	10 38	106 44 15	Blancard.
Faifo, or Bay of Touron	15 57	108 15 15	Idem.
Huéfo Kehoé . . .	16 29	107 20 15	Idem.

BOOK LIII.

OCEANICA.

PART I.

A General Description of this new Great Division of the World, comprehending the regions situated in the Ocean between Africa, Asia, and America.

BOOK LIII.

We now leave the old Asiatic continent, the nations, cities, and empires of which have fallen under our view. Our attention is claimed by another world, or rather, perhaps, the magnificent fragments of a former world, scattered over the mighty ocean. There extends over a space of more than 8000 miles a labyrinth of islands, an immense archipelago, in the midst of which are twenty countries spacious like minor continents, and one of them equalling Europe in extent.

General view of Oceanica.

These regions present in every quarter scenes fitted to move the most frigid imagination. Many nations are here found in their earliest infancy. The amplest openings have been afforded for commercial activity. Numberless valuable productions have been already laid under contribution to our insatiable luxury. Here many natural treasures still remain concealed from scientific observation. How numerous are the gulfs, the ports, the straits, the lofty mountains, and the smiling plains! What magnificence, what solitude, what originality, and what variety!

BOOK III.

Here the zoophyte, the motionless inhabitant of the Pacific Ocean, creates, by its accumulated exuviæ, a rampart of calcareous rock round the bank of sand on which it has grown. Grains of seed are brought to this spot by the birds, or wafted by the winds. The nascent verdure makes daily acquisitions of strength, till the young palm waves its verdant foliage over the surface of the waters. Each shallow is converted into an island; and each island improved into a garden. We behold at a distance a dark volcano ruling over a fertile country, generated by its own lava. A rapid and charming vegetation is displayed by the side of heaps of ashes and of scoriæ. Where the land is more extended, scenes more vast present themselves: sometimes the ambiguous basalt rises majestically in prismatic columns, or lines, to a distance too great for the eye to reach, the solitary shore with its picturesque ruins. Sometimes enormous primitive peaks boldly shoot up among the clouds; while, hung on their sides, the dark pine forest varies the immense void of the desert with its gloomy shade. In another place a low coast, covered with mangroves, sloping insensibly beneath the surface of the sea, stretches afar into dangerous shallows, where the noisy waves break into spray. To these sublime horrors a scene of enchantment suddenly succeeds. A new Cythera emerges from the bosom of the enchanted wave. An amphitheatre of verdure rises to our view. Tufted groves mingle their foliage with the brilliant enamel of the meadows. An eternal spring, combining with an eternal autumn, displays the opening blossom along with the ripened fruits. A perfume of exquisite sweetness embalms the atmosphere, which is continually refreshed by the wholesome breezes from the sea. A thousand rivulets trickle down the hills, and mingle their plaintive murmurs with the joyful melody of the birds animating the thickets. Under the shade of the cocoa, the smiling but modest hamlets present themselves, roofed with banana leaves, and decorated with garlands of jessamine. Here might mankind, if they could only throw off their vices, lead lives exempt from trouble

and from want. Their bread grows on the trees which shade their lawns, the scenes of their festive amusement. Their light barks glide in peace on the lagoons protected from the swelling surge by the coral reefs surrounding their whole island, at a short distance from the shore, and confining their domestic water in the stillness of a prison. BOOK I.III.

This region was long explored in quest of a *Terra Australis*, a continent which was supposed to rival the old world in extent. After a series of multiplied voyages had dissipated that illusory expectation, geographers still recognized in this wide region a fifth great division of the world. Unless we fix New Holland and New Zealand as appendages of Asia, we must create a new division to comprehend these vast countries. If this necessity is once admitted, the principle employed ought to be purely scientific. What reason can there be for dividing into two this great archipelago, which presents on the terrestrial globe such a manifest and striking whole? Why seek for a line of demarcation between the Moluccas and the Papuas, where none is traced by nature? The ancients restricted the name of Asia to the continent so denominated. When the modern discoverers of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, connected these islands with Asia, they were ignorant of the extent of that archipelago of which they formed a part. But we have no reason for declining to restrict the name of Asia to the limits assigned to it by nature. It forms a fifth part of the world.

The Chinese Sea separates Asia from the great ocean, as the Mediterranean separates Africa from Europe. To the west we continue the boundary line through the strait of Malacca, and then turning round the north point of Sumatra, we proceed to the point where the 92d meridian east from London crosses the equator. Through the whole southern hemisphere that meridian will form a convenient division between the seas of New Holland and those of Madagascar and Africa. The islands of Amsterdam and St. Paul will, on this principle, remain connected with the archipelago of the Indian Ocean. When we leave the Chinese Sea to the north, the channel between Formo- Boundaries of Oceanica.

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sa and the Philippines being the broadest, marks the natural boundary. From this we draw a line which, following that part of the waters which is most free of islands, separates the Japanese seas to a distance of 300 or 450 miles, and reaches the point of intersection of the 40th parallel of north latitude with the 152d meridian. The 40th parallel will continue to bound the new division of the world, till we come to the point where it is crossed by the 158th western meridian from London. Taking our departure from this point, we separate the North American seas from those of the Oceanic archipelago by the shortest line that can be drawn from this to the point of intersection of the 108th western meridian and the equator. This meridian will be our boundary through the southern hemisphere.

Designation of this part of the world.

The fifth part of the world thus determined is found to be situated in the Great Ocean, that which, of all others, is THE OCEAN, by way of eminence. This essential character is not common to it with any other division of the globe: it is a character which impresses a special physiognomy on its geography, as well as on its natural and its civil history. It is therefore worthy of being made the foundation of its name. It will be called OCEANICA, and its inhabitants the Oceanians; names which will supersede the unmeaning or inaccurate designations of Australasia, Notasia, Austral India, and Australia. New Holland has not one Asiatic feature. Extending the principle of the nomenclature which is in present use, we ought to call Africa "Occidental Asia." This designation would be equally correct with those others. There is no occasion for perpetuating the memory of the pretended *Terra Australis* in the name of a part of the world which is not exclusively situated on the Austral (or southern) hemisphere. The happier term of Polynesia will be preserved for that subdivision of Oceanica to which it has been specially applied.

Subdivisions.

In order to study the details of this vast territory, we proceed to divide it into a plurality of subordinate groups;

and in our classification we shall endeavour to reconcile the rigorous principles of natural geography with the routine of other geographers. We shall therefore first go over the islands situated between the Indian Sea, the Chinese Sea, and the Ocean, as far as the 132d east meridian.

North-west Oceanica.

These islands, which will form our north-west Oceanica, generally pass for an appendage of Asia, although the Chinese Sea determines so evidently the actual frontier of Asia. Not to browbeat with much disdain a prejudice consecrated by the usage of two centuries, we shall, in the arrangement of our materials at least, make these regions intermediate, while we lead the unprejudiced reader to recognize the natural classification. From the Moluccas, we shall pass by a short interval to Great Oceanica, to which accident has assigned the name of New Holland. Arranged round this immense isle we find New Guinea, New Britain, New Ireland, Solomon's Islands, Louisiada, Terra del Spirito Santo, New Caledonia, New Zealand, and Van Diemen's Land. This central portion of Oceanica, (which it will perhaps be necessary to subdivide again into two regions,) includes the countries least known, and the most numerous remains of the Oceanian negro race, who appear to be the true aborigines of this part of the world.

Central Oceanica.

Eastern Oceanica, or Polynesia.

Our third section will include the eastern part of Oceanica, or the numberless small islands which cover the Pacific Ocean from the Marians to Easter Island and Owyhee. To these the learned President de Brosses has applied the name of Polynesia[a], which the Portuguese authors, Juan de Barros[b] and Diego Couto[c], had, two centuries before, given to the Moluccas, the Philippines, and others to the east of Java.

Chains of mountains. Their polarity.

Nature has given this part of the world a very prominent and characteristic physiognomy. No portion of the surface of the globe has more numerous inequalities, and in none, except America, have the chains of mountains so

[a] De Brosses, Hist. de Navig. aux Terres-Australes, I. p. 80.

[b] Barros, Asia, Dec. I. tome I. p. 147.

[c] D. Couto, Asia Contin. t. III. p. 139.

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striking a polarity—so marked a direction from north to south. At the same time, these chains generally present about the middle a great bend from west to east. The best marked among them is that formed by the Marian islands, the Carolines, and the Mulgraves, which are probably connected by means of St. Augustine's Islands and some other links, with the archipelago of the Navigators, or that of the Friendly Islands. Their general direction is from north-west to south-east. Even among the Carolines, where that Polynesian chain turns due east, the particular links lie north and south. Another great chain makes its appearance in the Isle of Luzon, the largest of the Philippines, which passes by the island Palawan into that of Borneo. The direction of that well known branch is from north-east to south-west. It bounds on one side the basin of the Chinese Sea. More to the east that chain is converted into a number of minor ones, united in groups varying in their structure. The chains of Celebes and Gilolo are well marked; but a larger and higher one crosses New Guinea; where some of its elevations are covered with perpetual snow. In New South Wales, the long line of the Blue Mountains extends to Van Diemen's Land, terminating in South Cape and Cape Pillar, immense masses of basalt, which give a magnificent idea of this Cordillera of central Oceanica. The fourth great chain takes its commencement at the Andaman and Nicobar islands; then gives rise to the islands of Sumatra, Java, Timor, and others. It runs in the form of a bow from north-west to south-east, then due east, but it probably passes by Cape Diemen, (the Cape Leoben of the French maps,) where it can have no other direction than north and south.

The Polynesian chain.

Chain of the Chinese Sea.

Chain of New Guinea.

Chain of New South Wales.

Javanese chain.

All the archipelagos of eastern Oceanica lie north and south. New Zealand, New Caledonia, and the New Hebrides, form well marked chains. That of Solomon's Islands, bending from the south-east to the north-west, is continued in New Ireland and New Hanover. It often happens that the small chains are individually terminated by a larger island than the others of which they are composed

Small chains.

Thus the islands of Otaheite, Owyhee, and Terra del Spirito Santo, are found at the extremity of a line of smaller islands. These analogies might have facilitated the progress of discovery, and especially contributed to make each archipelago more easily recognised. By carefully marking the direction of a chain, navigators might have become almost certain of discovering new islands; and even still, they ought to attend to a principle which may put them on their guard against immense reefs which, in all probability, follow the direction of chains at the bottom of the ocean.

High islands.

Among these thousands of islands, some shoot up to a considerable elevation, generally presenting a conical form. Many of them, according to Foster, are basaltic: the centres of the mountains often contain wide tunnels, and at other times round lakes which may be taken for ancient craters.

Volcanos.

Although the presence of volcanic substances has not every where been ascertained by satisfactory evidence, we know already in Oceanica a greater number of volcanoes than in any other part of the world. Sailors sometimes speak of them with admiration, at other times with terror. In one place, as in Shootens Islands, near New Guinea, the flames and the smoke rise calmly over a fruitful and smiling country; in another, as in the northern part of the Marian islands, dreadful torrents of black lava darken the shore. The volcano of *Gilolo* broke out in 1673 with a violence which made the whole of the Moluccas shake. The ashes were carried as far as Magindanao, and the scoria and pumice stones floating on the sea, seemed to retard the progress of the vessels.

Low islands.

All the low islands seem to have for their base a reef of coral rocks, generally disposed in a circular form. The middle space is often occupied by a lagoon; the sand is mixed with pieces of broken coral and other marine substances; proving that such islands have been originally formed by these coral rocks, which are inhabited, and according to some, created by *polypi*, and afterwards augmented and elevated by the slow accumulation of light bodies drifted

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to them by the sea It is, however, very remarkable, that among the islands so constituted, some are almost level with the sea, while others have hundreds of feet of elevation, of which last Tongataboo is an example. On their summits are found coral rocks perforated in the same manner with those found at the water's edge. Now the madrepores, millepores, and tubipores which raise these submarine habitations, (for the true coral polypus is never found there,) grow over the hardened spoils of their dead predecessors. They cannot live above the level of the sea, a circumstance which shows that the sea, at a former period, washed these rocks, and gradually retired and left them exposed.

Difference of level of the islands.

Their origin.

Whether have the zoophytes or polypi themselves formed the stony bodies which they inhabit? or do they find them ready prepared by the hand of nature? This is one of the most interesting problems in physical geography; but hitherto, the observations made are too vague and too recent to afford a complete solution of it. Messrs. Anderson and R. Forster [d] incline to think that the animals form the matter which composes the coral rock, and consequently, that new islands may be formed by their labours. On this point Captain Cook is decided. Dalrymple thinks that the coral rocks are often formed at the bottom of the ocean, from which they are detached by currents and tempests, and thrown on the sand banks [e]. This may, in some localities, take place, but it cannot apply to the reefs which rise like walls in the middle of the deepest sea, such as the formidable rocks on which Captain Flinders nearly perished, and which probably proved fatal to La Perouse [f]. The great reef of New Caledonia is so steep that Captain Kent, commander of the Buffalo [g], sounding at no greater distance than twice the length of his ship with a line of 150 fathoms, could find no bottom. The reefs

[d] R. Forster, Observations, p. 149. G. Forster's Voyage, II. p. 145.

[e] Dalrymple, Historical Collection, I. p. 22.

[f] Flinders's Account.

[g] Mentioned by Barrow in his Voyage to Cochin-China.

round New South Wales also rise like perpendicular walls from a very deep bottom. Such structures must owe their origin to the animals themselves, unless we should advance a new doctrine, that they grow by a vegetation resembling that of the fuci, and that the polypi found on them are analogous to the insects which take up their abode on herbs and trees, a theory to which the arborescent appearance of some corals, and the fungous forms of others, give some countenance.

Dangers of the navigation.

The reefs render the navigation of this ocean exceedingly dangerous. In some of its seas these rocks reach the surface, while in others, they lie dangerously concealed, having over them only a few feet of water. Woe to the mariner who, in consequence of inacquaintance with the seas, or the power of the currents, gets entangled amidst the pointed spires of this submarine city. The intelligent Captain Cook was neither able to foresee nor avoid such dangers [h]. It happened at one time, by a singularly fortunate accident, that the point of a rock which had pierced his vessel was broke off, and by sticking in the place, and acting as a plug, saved the vessel from destruction.

Extent of the reefs.

The reefs often extend from one island to another. The inhabitants of Disappointment Islands and those of Duff's Group can make their visits by passing over long lines of reefs from island to island, presenting the appearance of a regiment marching along the surface of the ocean. On those reefs which are covered with water are found immense collections of *molluscæ* and small shells. Muscles of every variety, pearl oysters, *pinnæ marinæ*, star-fish, and *medusæ* collect in millions [i].

Straits of Oceanica.

A part of the world so constructed must contain an infinite number of straits. A few of the most conspicuous are all that we can notice. The strait of Sunda is the principal entrance of the Chinese sea. Asia is separated

[h] Forster's Opuscula, I. p. 52, and 253. (German.)

[i] Martyn's Figures of Shells collected in the South Sea, 1784.

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from Oceanica in general, and from Sumatra in particular, by the long strait of Malacca. To the north, the wide channel between the island of Formosa and the Philippines has hitherto received no name. To the east of Java, we distinguish, among a multitude of others, the strait of Bali, affording to the ships bound for China a passage which has some advantages over that of Sunda. The strait of Macassar separates Borneo from Celebes. To the east of this last island the great Molucca passage opens. The history of navigation has given a celebrity to the adjoining straits of New Guinea. That of Waigioo separates, with some geographers, Asia from Australia. Those of Dampier and Bougainville open useful tracks for navigators. A more important strait separates New Guinea from New Holland; it bears the name of Torres, who discovered it after erroneous views of the connections of these seas and lands had been long entertained; and farther south is Endeavour strait, discovered by Captain Cook. At the southern extremity of New Holland, and on the north of Van Diemen's land, Bass's strait opens one of the most important communications between the great Pacific and the Indian ocean. Cook's strait separates from one another the two islands of New Zealand.

Particular seas.

Many parts of the ocean receive particular designations from the countries which they respectively bound. Thus we distinguish the Chinese Sea, a real Mediterranean, the Sea of Celebes, and the Gulf of Carpentaria. Old charts give the waters which separate the islands of Java and of Timor from New Holland the name of the Landichol sea, probably composed of two Malay terms, *laoot*, a sea, and *kidor*, south. Captain Flinders has proposed to give the waters lying between New Caledonia, Solomon's Islands, New Guinea, and New Holland, the name of "the Coral Sea."

Winds and currents.

The winds and currents which prevail in this vast ocean may all be reduced to a single principle, the general motion of the atmosphere and the sea in a direction from east

to west, opposite to that of the rotation of the earth [k]. This occasioned the mistakes of Quiros, Mendana, and other navigators, respecting the length of the courses which they had sailed. This general motion usually acquires an increased force in the different straits, which are almost all directed from east to west. In the neighbourhood of the Philippines and of New Caledonia, the rapidity of the westerly current is extreme. But the extensive lands heated by the sun often attract to their central parts the atmosphere of the surrounding sea, and thus occasion winds opposite to the trade winds. Such are the west winds which prevail on the west coast of New Holland. These monsoons are not all known. Each island has its sea and land breezes, the former prevailing by night and the latter by day. At a distance of forty degrees north and south of the equator, the storms and winds are variable; the west winds, however, seem to prevail in the northern hemisphere, while Cook always found the winds easterly in the seas surrounding the south pole.

Climate.

The great countries of Oceanica are exposed to the influence of a vertical sun. It is probable that New Holland, unless it contains inland seas, has a climate as hot and arid as Africa. The marshy shores of some islands in the north-west of Oceanica, exposed to an intense heat, generate a pestiferous air, which may be corrected by human cultivation. Notwithstanding these local inconveniences, Oceanica presents to the industrious, the healthy, and the temperate, a greater diversity of delightful climates than any other part of the world. Such islands as are small and elevated resemble so many paradises. By selecting localities with the proper elevations, the Englishman may find his fresh lawns and his moss-covered trees, the Italian his orange-groves, and the West Indian planter his fields of sugar cane. The small extent of these islands procures for them the temperature of the ocean. The heat never becomes insupportable even for northern Europeans. The air

[k] For the Theory, see Vol. I. p. 336 and 378.

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is continually renewed by the light sea and land breezes, dividing the empire of day and night. Their perpetual spring is rarely disturbed by hurricanes or earthquakes[l].

Animals.

We have already, in another part of this work, taken notice of the imperfect features of resemblance presented by the animal kingdom in the different countries of Oceanica[m]. The didelph-opossums, the phalangers, the kangaroo-philanders, the cassowaries, and a few other species, seem common to several countries of this part of the world. The case will probably be found to be the same with some other species, when the natural history of these countries has been attentively observed. If several of them possess animals peculiar to themselves, that circumstance will appear noway surprising in a world of islands. None of the great races of quadrupeds, either of Asia or New Holland, has extended to the small islands of Polynesia. The pig is the only one found every where domesticated, and is the same species as in India and China. Dogs, cats, and rats, formed the whole quadruped class in these islands before Captain Cook supplied them with goats and cattle.

Quadrupeds.

Birds.

Ornithology offers, through the whole of Oceanica, a little more variety, along with many features of mutual resemblance. Common poultry abounds, and is of a larger size than ours. Labillardière saw on the Friendly Islands several kinds of loris and other birds, common to the Philippines and the Moluccas. In Otaheite as in Amboyna, small birds swarm in the groves of bread-fruit trees. Their song is agreeable, though it is generally said in Europe that the birds of warm climates are destitute of the powers of melody. Remarkably small parroquets, of a beautiful sapphire blue, live on the foliage of the highest cocoa, while others of a greenish colour, diversified with large red spots, appear usually among the bananas, and often in the houses of the people, who tame them and set a high value on their red feathers. These species are generally diffused between the 10th northern and the 20th southern pa-

[l] See Vol. I. p. 546.

[m] See Vol. I. p. 532.

rallel of latitude. The birds of paradise nowhere sport their light bodies and airy plumage but in the balmy winds of the shores of New Guinea. The aquatic birds are every where the same. In Amboyna and Otaheite we find the dark-green martin-fisher, with white neck surrounded with a ring of green. A large species of cuckoos, and several sorts of pigeons or turtle-doves, hop from branch to branch, while the blue herons gravely stalk along the sea shores in quest of shell-fish and worms. The tropic bird inhabits the caverns on the steep sides of the rocks, where the Otaheitans go in quest of it for the sake of the feathers of its tail. For the same purpose, they ensnare the frigate bird, a bird of passage. The *sphcniscus* (manchot) of the Great Ocean differs essentially from the penguin of the Atlantic. These birds, almost without wings, found at a distance of 1300 miles from any known land, live chiefly in the frigid zone, and even in the icy seas. But one species, the *Aptenodytes papua*, is seen at New Guinea and among the Papua Islands [n]. BOOK LIII.

No sea abounds so much in fish. Between Easter island and the Sandwich islands, La Perouse was followed by immense troops of fish; some individuals were easily identified by the harpoons sticking in their bodies. Between the shores of Borneo and those of New Guinea, we find an entire nation of fishermen called Badshoos, who are constantly in their boats, and live on fish. In the neighbourhood of New Zealand, Labillardière saw shoals of fishes, which produced by their motions a waving movement on the surface of the water, like the advance and recess of a tide [o]. The species are in general the same that are found in the Indian Sea. The bonitas, the dorados, the tunnies, the surmullets, the rays, the mullets, seem to abound alike on every shore. There are a hundred Fish.

[n] Forster, Historia Aptenodyt. Nov. Comm. Gott. 1780. Vol. III. Sonnerat, Voyage à la Nouvelle-Guinée, p. 181.

[o] Labillardière, Voyage, II. p. 86.

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new species, most of which are vaguely determined, as well as two new *genera*, the *Harpurus* and *Balistopodes*.

Seals and whales.

The seals of the Great Ocean, those at least which Peron observed on the shores of New Holland, differ from those of the Atlantic. Perhaps the case is the same with the whales which sometimes get entangled among the reefs, where their immense bodies have not room to turn. All the lagoons between the reefs and the shores abound with lobsters, common oysters, pearl oysters, and shells of extraordinary size and beauty. The crabs in some places acquire an enormous size; they eat cocoa-nuts. The crab of the Moluccas seems to be common to the whole ocean.

Crabs.

Poisonous fish.

The number of poisonous fish seems to be considerable. Quiros narrowly escaped death by eating a *sparus* caught on the coasts of Terra del Spirito Santo[p]. The companions of Cook believed they were poisoned at the same place by the same food. It is thought that this fish only becomes dangerous when it has fed on particular species of *medusæ*. But the *tetrodon*, which poisoned Forster on the coast of New South Wales, always contains a narcotic poison. At Otaheite there is a sea eel of a very deleterious quality, and a small red lobster which is still more fatal to those who eat it[q]. Anson's crew found near the Marians so many fish that they resolved to give up eating them entirely. This superfluous abundance seems common to all the seas belonging to the great Ocean.

The vegetable kingdom.

The vegetable kingdom of Oceanica presents to us all the riches of India in new splendour, and accompanied by other treasures unknown to Asia. In the Sunda islands, the Philippines, and the Moluccas, rice occupies the place of wheat; and the culture of it is probably extended over New Guinea. Farther to the east, in the islands of Polynesia, there are four exceedingly useful esculent plants, which grow either spontaneously, or under the influence of culture; the potato, the yam, and two species of *arum*,

Alimentary plants.

[p] Dalrymple, Historical Collect. I. p. 110.

[q] Missionary Voyage, Appendix.

from which, by culture and boiling, a sweet farinaceous substance is obtained. BOOK LIII.

Two orders of trees are spread over all the middling and small islands of Oceanica, which delight both the eye and the taste. The numerous family of the palms is extended over the most remote and the smallest islands. Between the tropics there is scarcely a rock or a sand-bank on which these trees do not display their astonishing vegetation. The palms[r] have, in the interior structure of their trunks, no analogy with other trees. In habit and in structure they resemble the ferns, in their blossom the grasses, and the asparagi in their mode of fructification. But no trees are so portly and magnificent as the palms. They present a straight column, perfectly cylindrical, crowned at the summit with a vast load of sprightly leaves, arranged in circles over one another, and put forth from their common receptacle large panicles, partially inclosed in ample sheaths, and loaded with flowers and with fruit. But their majestic appearance is their least merit. Their beauty is surpassed by their usefulness. The external layers of the trunk furnish a hard and heavy wood, which may be formed into planks and stakes. The sheaths which contain the clusters of fruit acquire such thickness and consistence that they are often used as vessels. The large leaves are employed for roofing wigwams and cottages. Materials for wadding, flock, and cordage, are furnished by the fibrous pericarp of the cocoa-tree, by the leaf stalks of several other species, and by the filamentous tissue which, in all of them, covers the trunk. Of these are made ropes, cables, and even sail-cloth, and they are used as oakum in caulking vessels. The leaves of the Macaw tree (latanier) serve for fans to the Indian fair ones; those of the *Borassus flabelliformis* furnish parasols which can cover ten people at a time. The leaves of some palms are used for writing on: the shell of the cocoa-nut supplies us with

Palms.

Usefulness of palms.

[r] Desfontaines, Memoires de l'Institut, 1796; Memoire sur l'organization des Monocotylédons ou plantes à une feuille séminale.

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a natural cup. This order of trees furnishes a number of excellent dishes. The sweet and pulpy substance surrounding the shells of some is eaten and dressed in a variety of forms: such are the *Arcca catechu* and the *Phœnix dactylifera*. In some, as the cocoa-nut, the perisperm or cotyledonous matter, while in others, as the cabbage palm, or *Arcca oleracea*, the terminal leaf-bud is used as a pot-herb. The milky liquid contained in the large cavity of the cocoa-nut is capable of being converted into wine, vinegar, and alcohol. From the same fruit a good oil is procured.

Bread-fruit. Another family of nutricious trees enjoyed by the Oceanian nations is that of the *Artocarpi*, or bread-fruit trees. This valuable genus rises to a height of forty feet. Its trunk acquires the thickness of the human body. The fruit is as large as a child's head. Gathered before it is fully ripe, and baked among ashes, it becomes a wholesome bread, resembling fresh wheaten bread in taste. For a period of eight months, this tree yield its fruits in such profusion, that three of them will support a man for a year. The inner bark of the same tree is manufactured into a kind of cloth. Its wood is well adapted for building cottages and canoes. Its leaves are used as napkins; its glutinous and milky juice furnishes good cement and glue.

Observation on New Holland. It is rather a surprizing circumstance, that the great Oceanic country of New Holland alone is destitute of these two vegetable tribes. The bread-fruit, which is spread over New Zealand, has evidently followed the civilization and the emigrations of the Malay race. Probably the palms will be found on the coasts of Carpentaria and De Witt's land, which have not been well explored; and perhaps their propagation in a southern direction has been arrested by a great inland sea, or a great mountain chain. The *Eucalypti*, the *Casuarinæ*, and some other large trees indigenous in the southern part of New Holland, have spread from thence chiefly over that portion of the remainder of Oceanica which lies in the southern hemisphere. The gum

trees and *dracænæ* of the north-west coast, connect again the Flora of this great island with that of Malacca and the adjoining parts of the continent. As yet our information respecting New Holland is too slender to enable us to descant on the relations which it bears to the rest of this division of the world.

Fruit trees abound in Sunda, and other islands in its neighbourhood. Perhaps they have been brought thither by colonies, or at least improved by culture. They have the sweet *mango*, the *Eugenia odorata*, the *sitodium*, and the *cynometra*, distinguished for their oily and farinaceous almonds, resembling the kernel of the hazel-nut, and inclosed in pulpy fruits surrounding the trunk of the tree. They have the tamarind, which, with its acid juice, alleviates the febrile heats so incident to the inhabitants of that climate. The pomegranate and the orange abound in all their varieties. The orange tree extends as far as the New Hebrides. The bamboo, the sugar cane, and the nardus, three gramineous species indigenous in India, grow still more luxuriantly in the marshes of Java and Sumatra than on the banks of the Ganges. The sugar cane is found as far to the east as Otaheite, but it differs essentially from that of the West India islands. Fruit trees.

In the islands of the north-west of Oceanica some valuable products are more perfect in quality than in any other place; such as sandal wood, aloe wood, or calambac; the *Melaleuca leucodendron*, which produces the oil of cajeput; the *Amyris elemifera*, which gives out the resin called elemi from incisions in its bark; the *aunota*, *cassia*, ebony, and several others yielding valuable gums the uses and even the names of which are unknown in Europe. These are probably found in all the Oceanian countries. In Otaheite there has been found sandal wood of good quality. Valuable woods. Gums.

Under such a sky as that of the islands of the great Ocean, we may expect to meet with a multitude of those plants which are distinguished by the brilliancy of their colours and the grace or singularity of their forms, but Flowering shrubs.

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scarcely known to us beyond the precincts of the stove and the greenhouse. It is only among a small number of readers that the names of the *hibiscus*, the *erythrina*, *aralia*, *ixora*, *bauhinia*, and *euphorbia*, recal the ideas of vegetable beauty and magnificence. Every one, however, knows those which contribute, by their aromatic pungency or grateful odour, to the luxuries of the table. All the islands of the north-west of Oceanica abound in the two species of pepper called the long and the round; the produce of the one being presented to us in the form of long spikelets containing seeds of minute size, while we know the other only in the state of round grains separated from the spike. Of these plants immense plantations are seen; but they are not found in a state of nature; at least this is the case with the black pepper, a native of Malabar[s]. The islands of eastern Oceanica produce in too large quantity the intoxicating pepper called *Piper methysticum*, used for preparing the dangerous drink called *ava* or *kava*. The cinnamon tree grows abundantly in Sumatra, and the adjoining islands. In the Moluccas nature had multiplied in the amplest profusion the *Eugenia caryophyllata*, the *calices* of whose numerous flowers are so well known in the European market under the name of cloves; and the *myristica*, the fruit of which forms our nutmeg, and the inner bark our mace. The jealous avarice of the Dutch East India Company confined these species entirely to the small islands of Banda and Amboyna. The policy of other nations has gone in quest of these lucrative trees to New Guinea, and though their researches have not yet proved successful, it is confidently believed that they exist in that country. The nutmeg tree grows also in Borneo.

Aromatic plants and trees.

But, if the most pleasant aromatics enrich this part of the world, the most terrible poisons are found in their company. The same heats of a vertical sun give energy to the juices of the fatal and of the salubrious species. The tree known under the name of the *Bohon oopas*, or the

Poisonous plants.

[s] Crawford's History of the Indian Archipelago, vol. I. book IV. chap. V.

"poison tree," saddens the forests of Turat, of Celebes [t], and of Balambooang in the island of Java [u]. It seems to belong to the genus *Euphorbia*; at least, the poison is not a gum-resin exuding through the bark, but a milky juice which issues from the branches when broken over. This tree has been the subject of many exaggerated reports. Even the philosophical Rumphius tells us that no other plant can live within the distance of a stone-cast round it; that if the birds happen to light on its branches, they instantly drop down dead; and that, in order to procure the gum without endangering life, it is necessary to have the whole body covered with a strong cotton cloth. He adds, that a single drop of its recent juice applied to the skin produces either immediate death, or an ulcer of a most malignant character, and extremely difficult to heal [x]. The inquiries of Messrs. Deschamps and Leschenault de la Tour have thrown some light on this mysterious tree. The former broke its branches without experiencing any harm: the latter confirmed the fact, that the juice of the oopas, when mixed with the blood, occasions speedy death; at the same time he showed that the immediate application of ammonia had the power of arresting its fatal effects [y].

Having given a general physical portrait of Oceanica, we shall take a view of the races of human beings by whom this part of the world is inhabited. They seem to be referable to two stocks, totally distinct both in physiognomy and in language; the Malays, or Yellow Oceanians, and the Oceanian Negroes. Races of men.

The Malays are no longer considered by the learned as having originally come from the peninsula of Malacca: it is now understood that it was not till a comparatively recent period that they became inhabitants of that country. Their national historians trace their origin to the island of Sumatra; they also describe them as connected with the Extension of the Malay race.

[t] Valentyn. Description d'Amboine: Vegetaux, p. 218.

[u] Deschamps, Annales des Voyages, I. 70.

[x] Rumphii Hortus Amboinensis, t. II. tab. 87.

[y] Memoir, in the Annales du Museum.

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Javanese; but we find them at present extending over numerous countries. Not only are all the inhabitants of the maritime parts of Borneo, Celebes, Luzon, and the Moluccas, of the Malay race; but the innumerable tribes of Polynesia, or eastern Oceanica, seem to have the same origin. Although the Marians are 5500 miles from Easter Island, and though Owyhee is at nearly an equal distance from New Zealand, we have a collection of facts authenticated by the concurring testimony of numerous observers, which force us to regard the families disseminated over this wide region as having a common origin.

Their physiognomy.

The islanders have tawny complexions, varying a little in the different tribes, independently of any ascertainable circumstances in their habits of life or their climate. The fairest are generally in the most westerly regions; some of them, as the Battas of Sumatra, are directly under the equator. The hair of the head is long, lank, rough, and always black. The hair of the beard, and in general of every part except the head, is scanty. They are in the practice of plucking out that of the beard in their youth. The Mahometan priests, affecting to wear long beards, cultivate them to the best of their power, but not with so much success as to escape ridicule. Their persons are short, squat, and robust; their lower limbs somewhat large, but not ill-formed. The busts of the females are much inferior in symmetry to those of the women of Indostan. The face is round, the mouth wide, the teeth remarkably good, the chin square, the cheek bones high, the cheeks rather hollow. The nose is short and small, never prominent, but never flat; the eyes are small, and, like those of other orientals, always black. They are an ill-looking people compared to the Arabs, Birmans, and Siamese. They are less handsomely formed than the Chinese, but have much better features[a].

Differences in colour and in the appearance of the hair

[a] Blumenbæh, Dec. Cran. III. tab. 29. Crawford's Hist. of the Indian Archipelago, Vol. I. p. 22.

have been observed between the great and the common people in Otaheite [a], which led Forster to believe that a Malay colony had subdued in these islands some prior negro tribes, of the race which inhabits New Guinea and New Holland. But others may, with some probability, ascribe this difference to habit and diet, as the great live on the flesh of quadrupeds, and the common people chiefly on fish.

Identity of languages.

The similarity of the languages, as exhibited in the very imperfect vocabularies given by Forster, Father Gobien, Marsden, and others, is strongly marked. The inhabitants of eastern Oceanica speak the same language in different dialects, and this presents a singular analogy to that of the Malays, particularly that spoken in Sumatra [b]. M. Du Petit Thouars says that the resemblance extends even to the language of Madagascar, which is its richest and most regular form. Mr. Crawford denies the identity of the vocabularies of the different islanders, and says, that on the contrary, even those tribes which are the nearest neighbours generally speak languages totally different and unintelligible to one another; yet, he remarks, that in character and structure, they are all exactly similar. Their roots are different, but the mode of applying and combining them is universally the same.

Similarity of government and laws.

They have all the same form of government. Captain Cook tells us that in Hamao, one of the Friendly Islands, Tamalao signifies a chief [c]. Father Cantova, speaking of the Carolines, tells us, that "the authority of government was divided among a number of noble families, the heads of which were called Tamoles; and that in every province there was a principal Tamole, to whom the others were subject [d]." The same species of feudal aristocracy prevails in the greater part of the islands of the Ocean. Cook tells us, that in the Friendly Islands, the chiefs never come in-

[a] Bougainville, Voyage Autour du Monde, p. 211.

[b] Marsden, Archæologia, vol. VI. [c] Third Voyage.

[d] Lettres Edifiantes et Curieuses, Vol. XV. p. 312. (Edition of 1781.)

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to the presence of the monarch without demonstrations of profound respect, such as touching his feet with their heads and with their hands [e]. Father Cantova's letters inform us that the Tamoles of the Caroline Islands are approached with the same reverence. When any one of them gives an audience, he appears seated on an elevated table, the people bow to the earth before him, and, at whatever distance they come in sight, they walk with the body so much bent that the head is almost between the knees, till they are near his person; they then seat themselves on the bare earth, and receive his orders with downcast eyes and other demonstrations of the deepest reverence. His words are regarded as oracles, and his orders are blindly and implicitly obeyed. In imploring any favour, they kiss his hands and his feet [f].

Ceremonial dances.

In the Friendly Islands it is customary to honour their chiefs and strangers with midnight dances, accompanied with vocal and instrumental music [g]. In the Caroline Islands, similar concerts are held in the evenings round the houses of the chiefs. In going to sleep, the latter are always serenaded by a band of young musicians [h]. The ceremonies on several solemn occasions are the same in islands situated at the greatest distances. The inhabitants of the Palaos Islands, those of the New Philippines, of the Carolines, and of Mangia, who are 4000 miles from one another, observe the same forms of salutation. They show their civility and respect by taking the hand or foot of the person whom they mean to honour, and drawing it gently along their faces [i]. Another mode of salutation, which prevails from the Sandwich Islands to New Zealand, is for the parties to bring the points of their noses into contact.

Solemn songs.

In almost every part of eastern Oceanica, the Polynesians receive strangers with grave songs, and present them

[e] Third Voyage.

[f] Lettres Edifiantes et Curieuses, t. XV. p. 312, 313.

[g] Third Voyage.

[h] Lettres Edifiantes, p. 314.

[i] Cook, Third Voyage. Lettres Edif. p. 208.

with a branch of banana as an emblem of peace. The black race, on the contrary, most generally avoid all communication with strangers.

Amusements.

The same terms are applied to designate the same sort of national amusements. The words *tanger ifaifil*, in the Caroline Islands, signify, "the Female Complaint," the title of one particular form of public entertainment. In the Friendly Islands the same thing is called *tangee véfaine*[k].

Society of Arreoy.

When we turn to the Marians, we discover still more decided resemblances[l]. The society of the Arreoy forms a most singular and infamous feature in the manners of Otaheite. These clubs of men and women, who make debauchery and infanticide fundamental laws of their body, present a phenomenon almost unique in the moral history of our species. Father Gobien tells us that there is a similar society in the Marian Islands. He says that the Uritoy are, among them, young people who live with mistresses without choosing to be connected by the marriage tie, and that they form a separate association. We know that the Otaheitans use a smooth pronunciation; and the word Uritoy, when the consonant T is suppressed, approaches to Arreoy or Erreoy, as the Otaheitan term is spelled by Mr. Anderson.

Divisions into castes.

Capt. Cook observed in the Society and Friendly Islands three castes, the chiefs, the free proprietors, and the lowest people, or serfs. Gobien expressly says that the same division into three ranks is observed in the Ladrone Islands. In the whole of Polynesia, the nobility are incredibly proud, and hold the people in a degree of subjection of which it is difficult for the people of Europe to form an idea. The whole political condition of these islands calls to mind the laws and institutions of the Malays. The case is the same with their notions of religion.

[k] Cook, Ibid. Lettres Edif. XV. p. 315.

[l] See l'Histoire des Isles Marianes par le Père le Gobien, liv. II. or an Extract contained in l'Histoire des Navigations aux Terres Australes, t. II. p. 492—512.

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Among the Carolinians, some keep the bodies of their deceased relations in a small stone building within their houses, others inter them at a distance from their own dwelling [m]. Here we have an analogy with the Feiatooka of the Friendly Islands, and the custom universal among these nations, of leaving the dead bodies to dry in the air. Their cemeteries are also inclosed in the same manner. The natives of the Society Islands strow round their burying grounds garlands of palm clusters and cocoa leaves, together with other objects particularly consecrated to funeral ceremonies, and near to which they also set down a quantity of food and water. The natives of the Ladrones, according to Gobien, feast round the tomb, which is always raised on or near the spot where the dead body is interred: it is covered with flowers, palm branches, shells, and every thing which the people esteem valuable. The Otaheitans do not bury the skulls of their chiefs along with the rest of the bones, but deposit them in boxes appropriated to that use. This strange custom is also found to prevail in the Ladrone Islands. Gobien expressly says, that they keep the skulls in their houses; that they put them in small baskets, and that the dead chiefs are the *Anitis* to whom the priests address their prayers. The opinions regarding a future state of existence have a general similarity among all these nations. They believe in the immortality of the soul, and in a heaven and a hell; but they do not consider these as places for the reward of virtue and the punishment of vice. In the creed of the New Zealanders the man who has been killed and eaten by his enemy is condemned to eternal fire. The inhabitants of the Ladrones also consider hell as the destiny of persons who have died a violent death.

Funeral ceremonies.

Ideas of a future state.

These striking coincidences cannot be the effect of mere chance. They lead us irresistibly to the conclusion, that the inhabitants of all these islands have derived their customs and opinions from a common source, and are to be

[m] Lettres Edifiantes, t. XV. p. 308, &c.

regarded as scattered tribes belonging to one nation, which had been separated at a period subsequent to the formation of their code of politics and religion.

How have these people been dispersed?

But how shall we conduct our inquiries into the progress of that dispersion? Shall we believe, with Cook, Forster, and others, that it has taken place only in a direction from west to east? These navigators justly remark, that parties of savages in their canoes must often have lost their way, and been driven on distant shores, where they were forced to remain, deprived both of the means and of the requisite intelligence for returning to their own country. Instances of this have occurred within the knowledge of modern writers. In 1696, two canoes, containing thirty persons who had left Ancorso, were thrown by contrary winds and storms on the island of Samar, one of the Philippines, at a distance of 800 miles[n]. In 1721 two canoes, one of which contained twenty-four and the other six persons, men, women, and children, were drifted from an island called Baroilep to the island of Guam, one of the Marians[o]. Captain Cook found on the island of Wateoo three inhabitants of Otaheite who had been drifted in a similar manner, and the distance between the two islands is 550 miles.

Strayed boats.

These facts are incontestible. But when we throw our eyes on the map, we perceive that these three parties of unfortunate sailors have all been carried by the prevailing currents and the trade winds to countries situated to the west of those to which they originally belonged. These examples, so frequently quoted, would therefore lead to an inference the reverse of that generally drawn from them. They would prove that Asia and Africa may have received colonies of savages from the Oceanian islands, but not that these islands had received colonists from the old continent.

Hypotheses offered.

In revolving this problem, we should believe the islanders to have proceeded from South America, were not that supposition destroyed by the total absence of any similarity in

[n] Lettres Edifiantes, t. XV. p. 196.

[o] Ibid. p. 282, &c.

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language, or in physical character[p]. We might again be tempted to suppose that they belonged to an ancient continent now buried in the sea, leaving these islands alone above the surface. But this hypothesis, which has been hazarded by an estimable scholar, only explains one difficulty by giving birth to many new ones[q]. If that ancient people left their few descendants in a state of dispersion over the east and the west, how does it happen that none of them are to be found on the large continent of New Holland, and that this country is entirely peopled by negroes?

Our hypothesis.

We consider the following as the best solution of this historical phenomenon. The large islands of Luzon, Celebes, Borneo, Java, and Sumatra, are inhabited by nations who speak languages bearing more or less affinity to that of the Malays, thus showing a common origin; yet some of them, such as the *Tagal* and *Bissay* languages of the Philippines, the *Balian* of the island Bali, and that of the Battas of Sumatra, also differ so essentially from one another, that their national separation must have been of very ancient date. At the same time, we are informed that other ramifications of the Malay tongue are found in Madagascar, 3000 miles west from Sumatra, and in the Society Islands and beyond them, nearly 7000 miles to the east of the Moluccas. They are said to be enriched with a harmony of modulation and a diversity of grammatical forms which suppose some advancement in civilization. The same feudal government, the same manners, and probably the same mythology[r], are found in countries thus distant. The conclusion which seems to follow is, that this language, these customs, and these institutions, were formed in the bosom of an ancient empire, a powerful nation, and one which cultivated maritime habits, but which has since fal-

[p] Forster's Observations on Physical Geography.

[q] Meiners, Recherches sur la Difference des Races Humaines.

[r] See afterwards our account of Otaheite, Bali, and other islands.

len from its eminence, and been frittered down into detached local communities, unknown to one another.

Focus of Malayan civilization.

But what was the seat of this Malayan Carthage? Every consideration shows that we must search for it in Borneo, Sumatra, and Java. The first of these islands is little known. The second appears to the learned Marsden [s] to be the true country of the Malay nations. Without positively adopting or rejecting this opinion, we rather incline to believe that the country of Malayan civilization is to be sought in the island of Java.

In the first place, the historical traditions of the Malay colony established in Malacca make Java the seat of a great empire, from which that emigrant tribe had received its laws and its religion. The greater part of the Malay books are translations from the Javanese.

Connections with India.

In the second place, the Malay language has a copious mixture of Hindoo or Sanscrit terms, which are particularly appropriated to religious and civil uses. These terms approach most of all to the *Kalinga* or *Telinga* language, spoken in Golconda and Orissa [t]. We might consequently expect to find this admixture following the order of local proximity. But we find the affinity with the Sanscrit to prevail chiefly among the Javanese, and most of all among the inhabitants of the mountains of Java. It is also in Java, and especially in the interior of that island, that we find the feasts and ceremonies of the Brahminical religion. The history of the Javanese makes the nation to descend from Vishnu [u].

Epoch of that civilization.

But at what epoch was Java the seat of a nation which, after being civilized by the Telinga Brahmins, colonized the shores of the vast Ocean? It certainly was prior to the introduction of Mahometanism; for that religion has not extended farther than the Moluccas: and the pig, an animal unclean in the eyes of the Mussulmans, has accom-

[s] Grammar of the Malay Language. London, 1812.

[t] Leyden's Memoir on the Indo-Chinese Languages.

[u] See afterwards our account of Java.

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panied the Malay colonies to the remotest islands of Polynesia. It was probably prior to the travels of Marco Polo: for he seems to speak of this world of islands as already known and visited. On the other hand, the ancients, in the days of Ptolemy, were not acquainted with any civilized nation to the south of the *Sinæ*, (the Siamese of modern times.) The chronology of the Javanese goes no farther back than the king of Pajajaran, who must have reigned in the year 74 of the Christian era. Thus probabilities fix the foundation of the first Malay colonies somewhere between the fourth and the tenth century of our era.

Second migration of the Malays.

A second migration of the Malays was occasioned by the Mahometan fanaticism; and this migration, which is better known, took place in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Hence arise the palpable differences between the Malays of the coast and those of the interior.

Race of Oceanian negroes.

The second great race of men belonging to Oceanica, is that which we have denominated the Oceanian negroes [x]. They are sometimes called the Papuan race. Compared to the Africans, they are of a diminutive size, being about four feet nine inches high, and never exceeding five feet. Such, at least, is the account given by Mr. Crawford, of those whom he had an opportunity of seeing in western Oceanica. They have spare and puny frames. The skin is not jet black, like that of the African, but of a sooty brown. Sir Everard Home thus describes one who was sent to England by Sir Stamford Raffles to distinguish him from the African negro [y]. "His skin is of a lighter colour: the woolly hair grows in small tufts, and each hair has a spiral twist. The forehead rises higher, and the hindhead is less cut off. The nose projects more from the face. The upper lip is larger and more prominent. The lower lip projects forward from the lower jaw, to such an extent

[x] See a Plate representing these two Races in Crawford's History of the Indian Archipelago. vol. I.

[y] Crawford's History of the Indian Archipelago, vol. I. p. 24.

that the chin makes no part of the face, the lower part of which is formed by the mouth. The buttocks are so much lower than in the negro as to constitute a marked distinction; but the calf of the leg is equally high as in the negro." The description here given of the countenance corresponds exactly to a very striking plate of a New Hollander, prefixed to a short tract entitled, Dixon's Narrative of a Voyage to New South Wales[a].

It is only indeed in exterior stamp that the puny negro of these islands bears any resemblance to the African, who, in vigour of frame and capacity for enduring labour, is superior to all other races, except the European. This is therefore evidently a distinct and an inferior race of mankind. Their dwarfishness and feebleness are not the effect of scanty food, or the hardships of their lot; for they do not attach to the lank haired races living in circumstances precisely the same. They have exclusive possession of some islands; yet have nowhere risen above the most abject barbarism. When encountered by the fairer races, they have been hunted like wild animals; and, incapable of retaining their ground, have retreated to the mountains and the fastnesses. The people of New Guinea and some adjacent islands have been described by navigators as of more robust constitution. Forrest's account is less satisfactory than that of Sonnerat. This author describes them as a hideous race, rendered more disgusting by the prevalence of leprosy or elephantiasis, yet robust: he adds, that their hair is of a shining black, or a *fiery red*[a]. This last account, which cannot be correct, is regarded by Mr. Crawford as throwing discredit on the whole; and he thinks it probable that they are equally feeble with the negroes of western Oceanica[b]. To suppose that this race has emigrated from Africa is to do violence to all fact and reasoning, both on man and on the physical state of the

[a] Published at Edinburgh in 1822.

[a] Voyage à Nouvelle Guinée, par M. Sonnerat.

[b] History of the Indian Archipelago, vol. I. p. 27.

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globe. The different negro tribes of the Indian islands have different languages, and all completely different from those of Madagascar. The agreement between the languages of these two distant countries originates not in the negro languages, but in those of the men of brown complexion. The coincidences which occur in points of arbitrary custom are to be traced to the same source, and the mode of transmission must have been from east to west. The Oceanian negroes seem doomed to perpetual misery, and incapable of rising from the very bottom of the scale of humanity. They have been found hitherto incapable of acquiring the habits and feelings of civilized beings; and we cannot allow that, at any former period, they existed in a superior state of society. This race is extended over New Holland, Van Diemen's Land, New Caledonia, the New Hebrides, New Britain, and Solomon's Islands, as well as New Guinea, where they go under the Malayan appellation of Papuas. Of these places they have exclusive possession, the Malays having either been expelled, or never permitted to settle. They seem also to have once occupied the Moluccas and the Philippines; but in these places they have been partly destroyed and partly driven into the interior by the Malays. In the Philippines they are called *Ygolotes* and *Negritos*; in the Moluccas, *Haraforas* and *Alfureses*. Perhaps they are extended still farther. Their features seem to be recognised in the inhabitants of the Andaman islands, and in the Googos of Sumatra. A few straggling families inhabit the central parts of the peninsula of Malacca, where they lead the lives of hunters[c]. But the Biajoos of Borneo and the Battas of Sumatra do not, as has been erroneously supposed, belong to them. Even several tribes called Alfureses, such as those of Booro, seem rather to be related to the olive-coloured race.

Their extension.

Degenerate varieties.

Besides these leading races, Oceanica presents to the observer of human nature a few more unnatural and dis-

[c] Crawford's History, vol. III. p. 5.

gusting varieties of the species. In the island of Mallicolo, and in the neighbourhood of Glasshouse Bay in New Holland, the shape of the head approaches nearer to that of the ourang outang than in other negroes. In the interior of Sumatra, there is a tribe which, from the large size of their heads and their small bodies, look like pygmies; and another, with long hair over the whole body, like the aïnos of Jesso. Deformities are often occasioned by hereditary disease. Thus the inhabitants of the island of Nias, off the west coast of Sumatra, have their bodies covered with scales, from a disease not unknown in Europe. The white leprosy, in which the skin of the negro assumes a livid white hue, prevails among the Papuans of New Guinea, and also extends to the Malay race in the isle of Java, where the subjects of it go under the name of *Kakerlaks*. In addition to these effects of preternatural change, the mixture of the olive with the negro race of Oceanians accounts for all the gradations found in this division of the world.

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OCEANICA.

PART II.

NORTH-WESTERN OCEANICA.

A particular Account of the Sunda Islands; or Sumatra, Java, and Borneo.

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THE first country which Oceanica presents, as we proceed eastward from the Indian Ocean, is the great island of Sumatra, known in some measure to Ptolemy, who seems to designate the point of Acheen under the name of *Jaba Diu*, the same as *Java Div*, or "the island of barley." The name *Samarade*, found in some editions of Ptolemy, seems to be a corruption of Sumatra. It was known to the Arabs under the names of Lamery and Saborma [a]. Marco Polo mentions some kingdoms and districts belonging to it. He calls it Little Java: some think that he thus contrasts it with Borneo, which was Great Java; but the fact seems to be, that he had no conceptions at all of the comparative size of the islands, and, finding that Java was the most famous and the best known island in this archipelago, and that Sumatra was also a large island, concluded that Java was the largest, and Sumatra the next in order [b].

Names of Sumatra.

[a] See our account of the history of Geography, Book XVI.

[b] History of Geography, Book XIX.

This island, called by the natives Andelis, and perhaps Samadra [c], is 1040 miles long, from north-west to south-east; its breadth varies from 55 to 235. A chain of mountains divides it longitudinally, running nearest to the western coast. The maritime parts, on both sides, are low and marshy. The main chain is accompanied by others of a secondary order. Four large lakes on the sides of these mountains discharge their water by rapid torrents, or graceful cascades. The most famous of them is called Manselar. Mount Ophir was found, by the measurement of Mr. Nairne, to be 13,842 feet above the level of the sea. Several of the mountains are volcanoes. That of Ayer-Raya is 1377 feet above the sea [d].

Extent. Mountains. Volcanoes.

The soil is for the most part a fat reddish clay, covered with a stratum of black earth, often poor and barren. In the mountains have been found a reddish granite and marble. Three fourths of the island, especially towards the south, are covered with an impenetrable forest. The gold mines had attracted the attention of the Dutch; but the German miners sent to Sillida declared the ore to be in sparing quantity, and too difficult to work [e]. The Malays of Padang and Menangkaboo sell annually from 10,000 to 12,000 ounces of gold, which they collect principally by washing. The mines of Sipini and of Caye yield gold of eighteen and nineteen carats. There are excellent mines of iron and steel in the interior. The steel of Menangkaboo is preferable to any in Europe. Tin, a metal found in so few countries, is an object of export. It is found chiefly in the neighbourhood of Palembang, on the east coast, being a continuation of the rich strata of the isle of Banka. The small island of Poolo-Pesang, at the foot of the mountain Poogong, consists almost entirely of one bed of rock-crystal. The soft rock called *nappal* seems to be a sort of soap-stone or steatite. Petroleum is also found at

Soil. Mineralogy.

[c] Valentyn's Description of Sumatra, (Ostindien, VII.)

[d] Marsden's History of Sumatra, p. 8. 24.

[e] Voyage of Benjamin Olitsch, counsellor of mines, by Elias Hesse, Dresden, 1690, (in German.)

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Ippoo, and elsewhere. It is chiefly used as a preservative against the ravages of the white ants. A great part of the sea-coast is surrounded with coral reefs.

Climate.

Though situated under the equator, Sumatra is seldom subjected to a higher temperature than 85° of Fahrenheit, while in Bengal the thermometer rises to 101°. The inhabitants of the mountains are in the practice of lighting fires in the cold mornings. But frost, snow, and hail, are unknown. Thunder and lightning are frequent, and principally during the north-west monsoon. The south-east monsoon, which is dry, begins in May and ends in September; the north-west or rainy monsoon begins in December and ends in March. The climate of Sumatra has been too much decried. The west coast, which is covered with extensive marshes, may deserve the character of a pestilential shore, in consequence of the unhealthy fogs to which it is subject. But many other parts of the island, especially the east coast, contain healthy situations, and afford examples of great longevity [f].

Vegetable productions.

The Malay Islands, though adorned with many rare native plants and valuable trees, are, in general, ill adapted for cultivation. The facts stated by Mr. Marsden leave no doubt on that head [g]. The Sumatrans cultivate two kinds of rice. They extract oil from sesamum, and chew the sugar cane. They obtain a black sugar called *jaggari*, from the *anoo* palm, which also yields sago, and, like other palms, an inebriating liquor. The cocoa is the chief dependence of the people for subsistence. Sumatra abounds in the most envied tropical fruits, such as the mangosteen, that celebrated wonder of the Indies, esteemed a universal remedy [h]; the *durion*, the white pulp of which has a taste resembling that of roasted onions, and is of a heating nature; the bread fruit, though not of the best quality; the fruit

[f] Radermacher's Description of Sumatra, § 7, in the Batavian Memoirs, (in Dutch.)

[g] Hist. of Sumatra, p. 19 and p. 59, &c.

[h] Rumphius, Hortus Amboinensis, Vol. I. p. 132. tab. 13, &c.

of the *Yambo mura*, which is shaped like a pear; pine-apples, which, at Bencoolen, sell for a penny or two-pence; guavas, lemons, citrons, oranges, and pomegranates.

The mountains of this island are richly enamelled with the finest purple and yellow hues, in an endless diversity of shades and forms, developed by numberless species of flowers. The *Soondal mallam*, or "fair one of the night," a funnel-shaped flower in this country, is so called from blowing only during the night.

Spices. The most abundant native commodity produced for exportation, and the chief object of the European establishments, is pepper, the produce of a creeping plant commonly called, from the analogy of its habit, the pepper vine. It begins in the third year to be productive, and continues so to the twentieth. There are two pepper harvests, the great one in September, and the small one in March. A very small proportion of it is in the form of white pepper, the effect of a process for removing the external skin[1]. Camphor is another conspicuous production, found in the form of a concrete crystal in the body of the tree. The camphor tree grows spontaneously in the north of Sumatra, which is the warmest part of the island. It equals the tallest timber trees in size, and is often fifteen feet in circumference[k]. Each tree yields about three pounds of light friable and very soluble camphor, which wastes on exposure to the air, though much more slowly than that of Japan. The oil of camphor is the produce of a different tree. Benzoin is a resin obtained from a tree resembling the pine. Cassia, a sort of coarse cinnamon, is found in the interior.

Trees. Rattans grow chiefly on the eastern side of the island, from whence they are exported in large cargoes to Europe for canes. Besides the herbaceous and the ligneous cotton, the silk cotton, *Bombax cliba*, is to be met with in every

[1] Marsden's Hist. of Sumatra, p. 118. Elias Hesse, p. 208. Eschelskron, p. 59.

[k] Valentini, Historia Simplicium, p. 488, tab. 7.

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village. In appearance, this is one of the most beautiful raw materials which the hand of nature has presented. Its fineness, gloss, and delicate softness, render it to the sight and touch much superior to the produce of the silk-worm, but such are its brittleness and shortness, that it is esteemed unfit for the reel and loom, and only applied to the humbler use of stuffing mattresses and pillows. Yet it is not impossible that farther experiments may find it capable of being adapted to a superior manufacture. The tree is remarkable for the straightness and the perfectly horizontal growth of its branches, three always growing together and forming equal angles. The subordinate shoots also grow flat, and all the gradations of the branches observe the same regularity to the top. Some travellers have called it the umbrella tree. Mr. Marsden compares it to the piece of furniture which we call a dumb waiter, consisting of a gradation of circular shelves on one axis[1]. The coffee tree is planted in great numbers; but the produce is rendered indifferent by unskilful management. The plants are set too close together, too much shadowed by other trees, and the berries are gathered while they are red, and before they have been sufficiently ripened to acquire the proper flavour. Ebony trees are in great plenty. Sandal wood and the celebrated eagle or aloe-wood, are the produce of this island, but they have lost much of that high reputation which they had among the early writers. There is excellent timber for ship-building, but, for want of rivers, it cannot be conveyed to the coast. Teak is scarcely to be met with, except where it has been recently planted. The *rangee*, or machineel, which is rendered useful by its property of resisting the ravages of the white ant, is found in this island. Iron-wood, and other useful species, are also found; among which is the elegant *camooning*, resembling in its leaves the larger myrtle, and yielding a beautiful wood, susceptible of an exquisite polish, and much used for the sheaths

[1] History of Sumatra, p. 127.

of *krecses*. The celebrated banyan tree also grows in this island, and, besides its other singularities, was remarked by Mr. Marsden to spring readily from the trunks of other trees, after they had become hollow by age, though still in vegetation; from brick walls; and even from the smooth surfaces of painted wooden pillars, where its seeds have been lodged by birds, or other modes of conveyance. The fibres which hang from the branches, and which, when they reach the ground, readily and spontaneously take root, are observed to assume curious fantastic forms wherever obstructing substances are placed in their way; so that living wicker works, of any form, may be produced by merely furnishing them with a mold [m].

Animals.

The horses are small but well made and hardy. The cows and sheep are of middling size; the latter are probably of the Bengal breed. The buffalo is used for some domestic labours. The forests contain the elephant, the royal tiger, the rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, the black bear, which eats the kernel of the cocoa-nut, the otter, the porcupine, the stag, the wild boar, the civet cat, several species of the monkey, particularly a bearded monkey, the *simia nemestrina*, which seems to be peculiar to this island.

Birds.

Among the numerous birds, the *coo-ow*, or Argos pheasant, is remarked for its uncommon beauty, but no complete specimen of it has been seen in Europe. Its plumage is said by Mr. Marsden to be the richest of all the feathered race, yet without any degree of gaudiness. When caught it cannot be kept alive longer than a month. It has an antipathy to the light, being inanimate through the day, and uttering in the night a harsh cry like that of the peacock. Turkeys are in great abundance, and in the southern parts there is a very large species of that bird, known also at Bantam. The *Ardea argala*, the largest known species of the heron, which is also known in India, and in the south of Africa, is a native of this island. The *angang*, or rhi-

[m] Marsden, p. 139.

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noceros bird is found here, remarkable for having a kind of horn projecting from its bill; perhaps it is a species of cassowary. The rivers are infested with crocodiles, and stocked with a great variety of fish. The house lizard is in great abundance, and remarkable for being the largest animal capable of retaining its hold so as to walk in an inverted position. Its body has such a degree of transparency as to allow the circulation of the fluids to be distinctly seen through the integuments. Insects are abundant, as in all hot climates, and among others the destructive white ant.

Geographical divisions.

The natives divide Sumatra into three countries. *Balla*, in the north, includes the kingdom of Acheen, (or Atcheen,) with the vassal principalities of Pedeer, Passay, and Delli. The interior of this division is inhabited by the Battas. It is bounded on the east side of the island by the river Siac, and on the west by the river Sinkol. The second division is the ancient empire of Menangkaboo, comprehending the kingdoms of Jamby and Andragiri on the east coast; in the interior the country of the Rejangs, and part of the present empire of Menangkaboo; and on the western coast the countries of Baroos, Tappanooly, Nattal, and others; the late Dutch possessions of Priaman, Padang, and Sillida, with the kingdom of Indrapoora. The third division, called *Ballum-ary* or *Kampang*, embraces the south-east end of the island, where we find the kingdom of Bancahoolo or Bencoolen, with an English establishment, the country of the Lampoons, and the large kingdom of Palembang [n].

Kingdom of Acheen.

Acheen is the only kingdom of this island the transactions of which have been deemed sufficiently important to occupy the attention of historians. It is situated in its north-western extremity. It formerly reached as far north as Indrapoor on the west coast, but now extends no farther than forty or fifty miles along both the

[n] Radermacher, Description de Sumatra, p. 9, &c.

eastern and the western shore; Carty, near Battoo-Bara river, being its boundary on the former, and Baroos on the latter. The subject inhabitants of the interior form three tribes, two of which, called Allas and Reeah, resemble the Acheenese, and the third, called Carrow, come nearer in manners to the Battas. The capital, Acheen, stands two miles from the mouth of a river, which admits no vessels during the dry monsoon. It carries on a considerable trade with the natives of the coast of Coromandel, who bring hither their cotton manufactures, and carry home gold dust, sapan wood, betel-nut, patch leaf, (the *Costus Indicus,)* sulphur, and benzoin. From six to ten Telinga snows, of 150 or 200 tons, come annually. They are prohibited from touching at any other port on the east or west coast. This is a precaution for securing to the monarch the profits of the trade, the customs, and the presents usually made. The king is the chief merchant of the capital. The people carry on the subsequent business of distributing the goods through the different parts of the kingdom. In this neighbourhood there is a volcano, from which sulphur is procured. The Acheenese are darker coloured, and stouter than the other Sumatrans. They have a greater portion of sagacity and of industry. The mercantile transactions of those not connected with the capital are conducted on a more liberal scale than in many other places. The religion is Mahometanism, and they have a great number of mosques and priests. The city contains several public buildings, but none of them elegant. The king's palace is a rude piece of architecture, surrounded with strong walls built for protection, but without the least attention to the modern principles of fortification. There are some cotton and silk manufactures in this country. The seamen are expert and bold, and carry on a constant and successful fishery. Having no coin, they make their payments in gold dust, which they keep in divided parcels contained in pieces of bladder, and these are weighed by the person who takes them in payment. The government is a hereditary despotism, subject

The capital

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to frequent revolutions and intervals of anarchy. The sultan, in issuing his orders, first makes them known to a woman seated at his feet; she communicates them to a eunuch sitting next to her, and he to the *Cajoorang-Gondong*, an officer who proclaims them aloud to the assembly. The throne is of ivory and tortoise shell. Ambassadors, and other strangers introduced to the sovereign, are rigidly subjected to certain ceremonies, which are rather troublesome than degrading, and they are treated with pompous hospitality. The country is wonderfully populous; the accounts of the population given by the people themselves are incredible, and believed to be exaggerations. The king hardly receives any land revenue: each proprietor is only obliged to give a measure of rice annually, which he carries in person to the court, but which seems rather intended as a mark of homage than a substantial tax. The king's revenues arise entirely from the customs on exports and imports, which amount to about £2500 a-year. The kings of Acheen, besides their proper territories, possess a grant along the sea coast as far as Bencoolen, from the sultan of Menangkaboo, whose sovereignty in these parts they acknowledge. The criminal laws of Acheen are particularly severe, and fall almost exclusively on persons in the lowest walks of society: mutilation and drowning are the most common punishments. The robbery of a priest is punished with burning alive. An adulterer is encircled by a ring of his countrymen, and furnished with a weapon, by the aid of which he is welcome to make his escape if he can break through any part of the ring, after which he is liable to no further prosecution; but he is most generally cut to pieces in the desperate attempt. The Acheenese, however, are represented by travellers as the most abandoned and unprincipled nations of the east. Their treacherous and sanguinary character was amply exemplified in their early transactions with the Portuguese. To these visitors, indeed, they owed little delicacy, nor could they profit in humanity by their example; but their conduct to one another was also

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marked by every feature that can render man an object of distrust and abhorrence to his neighbour *.

The Batta country.

The country of the Battas comprehends the mountains of Deirah and Papa, to the south of the plain of Acheen. It is bounded on the south by Passamman, and the independent district of Aru. The northern extremity is abreast of the great river Sinkel, and the southern a little beyond that of Tabooyang. The country is very populous, but the greater part of the people live at a distance from the sea-shore, in extensive plains, between two ridges of mountains on the borders of a great lake. It is divided into several districts, which are subdivided into tribes. The English settlements connected with it are at Natal and Tapanooly. A large quantity of gold is procured from the country, and there is a considerable sale for imported goods. The English live on good terms with the natives, but the people are too spirited to allow them any political influence. The settlement in Tapanooly Bay is on a small island called Punchong-cacheel, which has one of the most advantageous harbours in the world, and would be of vast importance if it were not so remote from the general track of shipping. The bay is very complicated, and stretches into the heart of the Batta dominions. The natives trade with the Europeans, and their conduct is inoffensive. The English have sometimes gone in small parties to gratify their curiosity in the interior, and on such occasions are treated with respect and hospitality. High up on the river Battoobara, which flows into the straits of Malacca, there has been discovered a large brick building, in the form of one or more squares, with a very high pillar at one corner. Images, supposed to be Chinese josses or idols, are carved in relief on the walls, but no tradition is preserved respecting the erection of it. The Battas are of lower stature and fairer complexion than the Malays. Their dress is of coloured cotton. The covering of the head is generally of the bark of a tree. The

Ancient building.

The Battas.

* Marsden's History of Sumatra, p. 311—370.

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women wear rings of tin in their ears, sometimes to the number of fifty in each. Their ordinary fare is maize and sweet potatoes. Rice is confined to persons of distinction. It is only on great occasions that cattle are killed for food; but they will eat a part of any dead buffalo, alligator, or other animal they chance to meet with. The rivers are too rapid and too much interrupted by waterfalls to have many fish, except near their mouths. They delight most of all in horse flesh; and the best horses are carefully fed and rubbed down for the table. Their houses consist of wooden frames, which are boarded and roofed with a vegetable substance called ejoo, resembling horse hair. Their *campongs*, or towns, consist of about twenty houses: each house consists of a single apartment, which is entered by a trap door in the middle, and opposite is an open shed where they sit during the day. Each *campong* has a hall for public business, and the reception and entertainment of strangers. Polygamy is freely practised. The wives sit in different corners of the same apartment, and have their separate establishments for cookery; but their respective rights and duties are sufficiently understood to obviate the heart-burnings and jealousies which are usually imputed to the harems of the east. They are represented as a sort of slaves. They perform the labours of agriculture. The men, when not engaged in war, lead indolent lives, passing the day in playing on a kind of flute, which they deck with garlands of flowers. Their music is rather better than that of the other Sumatrans.—They are much addicted to gaming. A man who is unable to pay his gambling debts is liable to be confined and sold as a slave, unless released by the generosity of the winner. They are fond of horse-racing. They use no saddles. Sometimes the bit is of iron and the reins of rattan; at other times the bit is of wood and the reins of ejoo. They have a peculiar language and a peculiar written character, and the majority of the people can both read and write. The bark of a tree is used among them for paper. In their mutual

dealings they are strictly honest, but pilfer readily from strangers, when they are not restrained by the rules of hospitality. Adultery in men is punished with death; in women it is only followed by the disgrace of having the head shaved, the weaker sex being looked on as less accountable for their actions. The Battas practise cannibalism in the punishment awarded to particular crimes. This fact is established by abundant and unquestionable evidence. The intention of it is to testify their detestation of crime, and inflict the greatest possible ignominy on the victim. It is sometimes also extended to prisoners of war. The sufferer is first killed by lances thrown at him by the people, who, when a mortal wound is given, run up to him in a rage, cut pieces from the body with their knives, dip them in salt and lemon juice, lightly broil them, and swallow them with savage enthusiasm. This is not accompanied with any intention of giving pain to the sufferer, and therefore, though ferocious and inhuman, cannot, when rationally viewed, excite so much detestation as the refined tortures by which some nations prolong the sufferings of obnoxious individuals. An English gentleman, who lately made some inquiries into the manners of these people, asked them if there was any part of the body which was usually preferred to the rest. They told him jestingly, after a little thought, that the palms of the hands and soles of the feet were the best eating [p]. The Batta country is divided into a number of petty communities, governed by rajas who are generally independent. In some instances there are gradations among them. The people have a permanent property in their possessions, and sell them to one another when so disposed. This is probably one cause of the comfort and prosperity which they are observed to enjoy in a greater degree than most of their neighbours. They entertain a superstitious veneration for

Singular cannibalism.

Government.

[p] A MS. letter from a British officer, read before the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh, 182?.

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the sultan of the neighbouring kingdom of Menangkaboo. They submit blindly to his emissaries, even when insulted, imagining that if they offered to resist they would cease to thrive, and their crops and their cattle would be ruined by some mysterious spell. They often go to war with one another, and carry on the contest not by open or general engagements, but by petty hostilities, waylaying individuals of the hostile tribe. Before declaring war they use the solemnity of firing with gunpowder without shot into the campong of the enemy, and give a certain time for proposals of reconciliation before they commence actual hostilities. Their arms are matchlocks, bamboo lances, and a sort of sword or large knife. They carry no kreeses like the Malays. They manufacture their own gunpowder. They believe in a good and an evil deity.—On their belief in a future state accounts differ. Marsden says they have no such idea. They are credulous in matters of sorcery and prognostication, and take oaths with vehement solemnity. The priests predict the event of a war by inspecting the intestines of a dead buffalo; but, if their predictions are not verified, they are sometimes put to death. The body of a deceased man of rank is kept in a coffin for several months; the soft parts, dissolving during that interval, are conveyed in a fluid state by a bamboo tube from the bottom of the coffin into the earth. This people has remained separate from the other races partly in consequence of the absence of gold and other articles of traffic to tempt the rapacity of conquerors and the speculations of traders. Their marriages are accompanied with some singular ceremonies. The intended bride appears undressed before the man in a bath, after which he makes his bargain about the sum of money which he is to give to her relations. The young couple partake together of two sorts of rice, and the father of the woman throws a piece of cloth over them.

Religion and customs.

Passaman.

On the west coast, adjoining the Batta country to the south, is a populous territory, called Passaman, an independent Malay sovereignty, governed by two rajas, for-

merly subject to Menangkaboo. The Dutch have a factory at Padang, to which they were probably attracted by the quantities of gold found near it. About 10,000 ounces of gold are annually exported from the west coast of the island. To the south of Padang is Indrapoor, once the seat of a considerable monarchy, from the ruins of which sprung that of Anac-soongey, the capital of which is a small place called Moco-moco.—Next to this is the country of the Rejangs, who live under chiefs called Panjerans, whose power is very limited. They have adopted Malay civilization, and yet preserved their primitive character and manners. They are small lean figures. Their noses are artificially flattened, and the lobes of their ears distended. Their eyes are black and lively. Their women bear a resemblance to the Chinese. Their complexions are rather yellow than brown or copper coloured. Their mountaineers are extremely subject to goitres. A little to the south, in 3° 16′ south latitude, is Bencoolen, a Malay town, near which is the English presidency of Fort Marlborough. Here pepper and sugar cane are cultivated, but the produce does not pay the expenses of the government.

The Rejangs.

Bencoolen.

In the centre of the island is Menangkaboo, extending partly to the northward, but mostly to the southward of the equator. It is the chief seat of empire of the island, formerly extending over the whole, and held in high respect in the east. At present, its longest diameter does not exceed 100 miles, and probably falls much short of it. The capital is called Pangarooyoong. The sultan's power is greatly limited, and is chiefly founded on a superstitious veneration in which he is held as a sort of Mahometan pontiff. It is supported by the priesthood, but very little submitted to by persons possessing any military power beyond a very limited territory. The titles which he assumes in the preambles to his edicts are absurdly pompous, containing a minute enumeration of his wealth, and the mysterious power of his military weapons. The people have no records or annals. They write expertly in the Arabic character; but their whole literature consists of

Empire of Menangkaboo.

Sultan.

Literature.

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transcripts of the Koran and bold historic tales. They are famous for composing songs called *pantoon*.

Their arts.

The arts are carried to greater perfection among them than among the other natives of Sumatra. They are well skilled in the manufacture of gold and fillagree. They have, from the earliest times, manufactured arms for their own use, and for sale in the northern parts of the island.

Kreeses.

They use lances, kreeses, and various side arms. The kreese has a blade fourteen inches long. It is not polished, but has a waving surface, resembling that of an imperfectly mixed metal; it has several serpentine bends. The handle is of ivory or some beautiful polished wood, finely carved and ornamented. The sheath is made of a hollow piece of beautiful wood. They used to go frequently to war with the Acheenese, but the modern English settlement at Nattal operates as a check on that warfare, the settlers in that locality having placed themselves under the protection of the English Company. The people of Menangkaboo differ from the other inland inhabitants, in being all Mahometans, having been converted at a very early period. The capital is the resort of pilgrims of that religion.

A province called Tigablas Cottas yields a very pure gold, and contains a great lake called Dano. In the interior the Googons, a wild and hairy race resembling ourang-outangs rather than men, dispute with the lower animals the dominion of the forests.

Lampoon country.

The Lampoon country is a portion of the southern extremity of the island, consisting of mountains covered with impenetrable forests and plains which are subject to frequent inundations. The people resemble the Chinese more than any of the other Sumatrans. They have a guttural language, and a character peculiar to themselves. They are a hospitable and unwarlike race, using no firearms, and are not a match for the Javanese banditti, by whom they are much molested. Their manners are more licentious than those of the other Sumatrans. They have public dances called bimbangs, where the young women

exchange their ordinary for their dancing dress, letting the one drop off dexterously, as the other is brought down over the head. They have canoes formed of the hollowed trunks of single trees, and large enough to carry 13,000 pounds weight.

Kingdom of Palembang.

The kingdom of Palembang, an ancient dependence of the Susuhunam, or emperor of Java, is mostly peopled by Javans. It has, in recent times, come under the protection of the Dutch government at Batavia, which has a factory in the country, procures from it pepper and tin, and makes it a mart for vending opium and other commodities from the west of India. It comprehends the south-east portion of Sumatra, and the islands of Banka and Billiton. Both in Banka and in this part of Sumatra, there are tin mines; and that metal is always purchased with silver, for which there appears to be no efflux from the country. Hence probably arose the accounts given of the immense wealth of the king of Palembang. But to all appearance both the chiefs and people are miserably poor. There is said to be a remarkable increase of land in this kingdom, by deposition from rivers and from the sea. Ill cultivated, and covered with forests, this country exports, in addition to the other productions of Sumatra, sassafras, dragon's blood, and excellent timber. The climate is liable to many abrupt changes of temperature, yet not unhealthy [q]. The large city of Palembang is inhabited by Chinese, Siamese, Malays, and Javanese, but the only stone buildings in it are a temple, and the royal castle. The despotic sovereign, without a regular army or a fixed revenue, indulges his pride and his effeminacy in the midst of an ample seraglio. The male inhabitants of Blida, from being extremely stupid and phlegmatic, have the exclusive privilege of being admitted within the walls of that building, where they act as water-carriers. The laws here are without influence, the judges void of honour, and the merchants destitute of honesty. The Mahometan priests engage in trade, and not without success. The thieves,

Seraglio

[q] Radermacher, p. 131.

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who are called Sumbaraws, live in a community legally acknowledged, under a leader who restrains their excesses, and keeps up the police[r]. Here, as in the whole island, the Malays wear a vest, and a kind of mantle, with a belt in which the kreese is thrust. They wear very short trousers, the legs and feet are naked. The head is covered with a pretty handkerchief, over which they put a broad hat when they travel. Both sexes file and blacken the teeth. Their houses are of wood and bamboo, covered with palm leaves, raised on pillars, and entered by an ill made ladder.

Society of thieves.

Diminutive negroes.

The interior contains some negroes, with uncommonly large heads, short bodies, and very slender arms and limbs. Mr. Radermacher saw some specimens of this race at Palembang.

Banka and Billiton.

The island of Banka, off this coast, is 130 miles long by forty-five broad. It has tin mines in different places, which were discovered accidentally in 1710, by the burning of a house. They are worked by 10,000 resident Chinese. Navigators have considered this climate as one of the most deleterious in that part of the world. That observation, however, applies only to the immediate neighbourhood of the sea. The island was ceded to the British in 1812, and being thinly peopled, in proportion to its soil, is recommended by Mr. Crawford as a good station for an English colony; but it was given up to the Dutch by the treaty of peace in 1814, in exchange for Cochin on the coast of Malabar. On the east of Banka lies the round shaped island of Billiton, separated from the former by Clement's straits, through which the vessels bound for China pass, after passing those of Sunda[s]. It is the only place, in this whole archipelago, that contains iron mines which are worth the working.

Jamby.

Jamby, on a river of the same name, to the north-west of Palembang, was formerly a place of note, and both the English and Dutch companies had establishments there;

[r] Radermacher, sect. 115.

[s] Fleurieu, Voyage de Marchand, II. p. 107, &c.

but the system of oppression and monopoly which they brought along with them issued in their poverty and ruin. There are many other petty Malay states at every large river on that side of the island; but the extent of their respective powers is little known, being frequented only by the Moorish vessels of Telinga. Private trading ships from Bengal sometimes dispose of a few chests of opium, but seldom venture on shore, so great is the antipathy to them entertained by the natives. They are generally at war with the inhabitants of the interior, who confine them to the sea-coast. The chief of these states are Indergerie Siak, from which the best sago is obtained, and Batoo-Bara. The river Racan, in the Aru country, so often mentioned by the Portuguese historians, is so rapid, and attended with so great a swell, as to be unfit for navigation.

North-eastern shore.

The whole of the shore, from the Straits of Sunda to Diamond Point, is very low land, mostly covered with woods, and few or no mountains are in sight of the shore. From Diamond Point to Acheen, there is a gradual slope to the foot of a range of high hills, and the lands are well cultivated.

A multitude of islands of different sizes lie between this shore and the peninsula of Malacca. Poolo Lingen is an irregular island, fifty miles long, by thirty in breadth, having a remarkable two-peaked mountain in the centre, called by sailors the "Asses Ears." It is held by a piratical chief, and much frequented by pirates.

Singapore.

The island of Sincapore has, within these few years, been occupied by the English, and constituted a free port, in consequence of which it has acquired great importance with unexampled rapidity. When the British flag was hoisted by Sir Stamford Raffles, it was almost unoccupied, the population not exceeding 200 souls. In three months it increased to 3000, and it now exceeds 10,000, consisting chiefly of Chinese. No less than 173 vessels, principally native, arrived and sailed in the first two months. The Malays to the east, entertaining a great objection to pass the straits of Malacca, are encouraged by this empo-

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rium to exchange their commodities for the productions brought thither from the west. The English flatter themselves with the hope of vending through this medium an immense quantity of their manufactures among the natives of north-western Oceanica[t].

Islands on the west of Sumatra.

The islands on the west of Sumatra form a regular chain. The isle of Nyas, very fertile and populous, is inhabited by a singular race, distinguished by a skin of a whitish appearance covered with scales, and by ears of uncommon length[u]. A great trade is carried on between it and Nattal. The articles received from it are rice and slaves; of the latter 450 are annually bought, besides 150 which go to the northern ports; and in the act of kidnapping them, the chiefs destroy about 200. These facts illustrate the exuberant tendencies of the population. They are remarkably ingenious in handicraft work. Their language and manners resemble those of the Battas. They cannot pronounce the letter P. Their principal food is pork. They are said to be revengeful in their temper; but that character is chiefly founded on their being reckoned dangerous inmates in the situation of domestic slaves.—The Nassau, or Poggee islands, consist of rocks and mountains covered with forests to their tops, and affording excellent timber. Sago grows on them in great abundance. The inhabitants do not produce rice, but they cultivate cocoa-nuts, and they are surrounded by plenty of native bamboos. The islands contain red deer, hogs, monkeys, a few tigers, but no buffaloes or goats. The inhabitants, in number 1400, are a tall copper-coloured people, similar to the Otaheitans both in aspect and in simplicity of manners. They are in the habit of tattooing their bodies Polygamy is unknown among them, but chastity among the unmarried is scarcely esteemed a virtue. They believe themselves to be descended from the sun[x].—Enganno, or deceitful island, has

Nyas.

Nassau islands.

[t] See the Report relative to the Trade with the East Indies and China. Printed by order of the House of Commons, 1821, p. 194—205, and 383.

[u] Radermacher, p. 71.

been represented as inhabited by a race of cannibals. Charles Miller landed on it, and found the natives rude and simple. They are tall and copper-coloured, living in circular huts standing on pillars of iron-wood. Their food consists of cocoa-nuts, sweet potatoes, sugar cane, and dried fish [y]. It has been said that they lived on rock lichens [z], a thing not at all improbable.

Strait of Sunda.

The celebrated Strait of Sunda separates the island of Sumatra from Java. The navigator coming from the Indian ocean, with Sumatra on his left, and Java on the right, soon sees the great island of Borneo right a-head. Hence these islands have been called in French, *isles de la Sonde*, or "the islands of the Sound." The word Sunda seems to be of Sanscrit origin, and as such, bears a resemblance to the Danish word *Sund*, and the English "Sound," one of those numerous coincidences, to the existence of which we have on former occasions adverted [a].

Island of Java.

The Island of Java, the seat of a great and flourishing native empire, the centre of the power of a commercial company which lately ruled all the eastern sea, is worthy of a more extended description than the limits of this work will allow. This island commands by its situation the principal entrances of the seas of Eastern Asia. In size it is inferior to Borneo and Sumatra, being only 690 miles long, and varying in breadth from 80 to 140. Its superficial area is about 18,560 square miles. The name Java is Malay, and signifies, according to some, "the great island," according to others a particular grain which grows on it [b]. The Arabs and Persians called it *Djezyret al Maha-Radje*, "the island of the great king."

Names.

Mountains.

According to Valentyn's large map, this island is traversed from east to west by a chain of mountains which generally lie nearest to the southern shore. In some parts there is a double chain, containing between them elevated

[y] Asiatic Researches, t. VI. p. 77. Annales des Voyages, t. I. 117.

[z] Bibliotheque Britannique, No. 147, p. 203. [a] Radermacher, p. 78.

[a] Vol. II. p. 284. See also p. 270 of this volume.

[b] Valentyn, Description de Java, p. 61—66, (Indes Orientales, t. V.)

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table lands, such as those in which Priangan and Mataram are situated. The most westerly part presents a lower terrace. The high mountains begin straight south from Batavia, and are called the Pangerannan, or "Blue Mountains[c]." Between Tcheribon and Mataram, in the narrowest part of the island, the highest mountains are collected, the Gonnong-Kandang, Toorenterga, Tagal, and Keddo[d]; farther east, the two brothers, or Soodara-Soodara, Mount Loovon, Domong, Japan, and others, continue the chain to the eastern extremity. The plains on the coast consist of a reddish clay of little fertility, a black rich clay, and a barren yellow till. About three miles from the shore are the limits of the alluvial land, formed of sand, mud, and shells[e]. The mountains, covered with trees and herbs, and enriched with a varied cultivation, exhibit a most agreeable prospect. Among the volcanoes of the island, (for scarcely any islands in this part of the world are without volcanoes,) that of Geté is reckoned 8000 feet above the level of the sea.

Soil.

Climate. Temperature of the coast.

The northern shore of Java is considered as extremely unhealthy. Yet the heat is no way insupportable. At Surabaya, the thermometer rises to 92° or 93° of Fahrenheit in the dry season, but between noon and midnight there is a difference of 24 or 28 degrees[f]. The fatality of Batavia, Samarang, and some other places, to European constitutions, seems to arise in a great measure from the marshy lands, the stagnant water of numerous canals, the excessive number of trees, and general want of cleanliness[g]. At Batavia an earthquake in 1706 produced a bar which dams up the water of the river[h].

Temperature of the interior.

Thirty miles from the sea there are hills of considerable height, where the air is fresh and healthy. The plants of

[c] Valentyn's Map, sheet 2d. [d] Idem, sheet 4.

[e] Mem. de Batavia, I. p. 21—190. &c.

[f] Labillardière, Voyage à la recherche de M. de La Perouse, t. II. p. 309. Compare with Radermacher, Description de Batavia, p. 45.

[g] Cook's First Voyage, book III. chap. XI. Wurmb and Wollzogen's Letters, in German, p. 372, and 380.

[h] Valentyn, p. 231, and 238. Bogaerts, Historische Reizen, liv. I. p. 170. (en Holl.)

Europe, particularly strawberries, grow very well: the inhabitants are vigorous, and have healthy complexions. To these situations invalids are sent, and are found soon to recover. The whole of the interior has similar advantages. At Soora-Karta, where the emperor of Java resides, the air is highly salubrious to strangers, and the waters of the limpid rivulets are good and pure [i].

Vegetable productions.

The very circumstances which render Batavia and its vicinity unhealthy to man, render it the most propitious locality to vegetation. The rice crops are of the greatest importance. The cultivation of this article, and indeed all the branches of husbandry, are conducted with more intelligence and neatness by the Javanese than by the Hindoos, and greater facilities are afforded for increasing their amount by irrigation, in consequence of the numerous rivulets superseding the necessity of such enormous tanks as form the sole dependence of many agricultural districts in continental India, and enabling the natives to accomplish every purpose by canals and drains. No manure is applied to the land, either here or in any other island of this archipelago, nor is any advantage sought from particular rotations of crops. Next to rice, the most important produce is maize, bearing a relation to the former similar to that which oats or barley do to wheat in Europe. Mr. Crawford differs from Humboldt in considering this as an indigenous product, and not consequent on the discovery of America. The name of it bears no analogy to any American term, although it is found that all exotics in this part of the world either preserve their native name, or others which point at their origin [k]. The yam (*Dioscorea alata*) has been cultivated in this part of the world from time immemorial, in many varieties, and seems to be indigenous. Sometimes it attains a weight of forty or fifty pounds. It is less cultivated in Java however than in the poorer islands, where the *cerealia* are more scarce. The sweet potato, and the European pota-

Maize.

Yams, &c.

[i] Wollzogen, p. 378.

[k] Crawford's Hist. of the Indian Archipelago, vol. I. p. 366.

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to are of very good quality. There are several leguminous species, such as beans, lentils, kidney-beans, and Angola peas, and all the culinary European plants; also the white Chinese radish, and the fruit of that species of *solanum* which is called the egg plant. Capsicum grows both in a wild and cultivated state, and is much used by the natives, who have no relish for black pepper, and those other spices of their own climates which are so much relished by all foreign nations. The cocoa tree is cultivated as an article of food; a little oil is pressed from it which is highly esteemed. The most valuable nut, especially considering its adaptation to poor soils, is the *Arachis hypogœa*, or ground pistachio-nut, yielding an abundant product of expressed oil, while the leaf of the plant makes, like clover, excellent feeding for cattle, and the oil cake is used as dressing for the land.

Palms.

The areca or betel nut, a graceful slender palm, grows here abundantly; also the Gomuti palm, *(Borassus gomutus,)* affording the principal supply of that sacchārine liquor which yields sugar by evaporation, the only sugar used by the natives; and which, when fermented and distilled, is converted into toddy and into spirit. A valuable production of this tree is the *ejoo* already mentioned[1], found between the trunk and branches, and used in the manufacture of cables and standing rigging. It affords also a farina of the nature of sago, and obtained from it in a similar manner. This tree grows in no other part of the world except this archipelago; and differs from the cocoa in being principally an inhabitant of the mountains.

The banana *(Musa paradisiaca)* is to the natives the most important of the fruits of the Indian islands, though never depended on as their chief subsistence in the same manner as it is in the tropical parts of America. Sixteen species or varieties of this fruit are cultivated in these islands; whereas in America there are only three. This archipelago furnishes the most curious, the richest, and the most

[1] P. 436.

extensive variety of the acido-dulces fruits of any portion of the globe. The greater number are indigenous, and some of the finest so peculiar that all attempts to propagate them in other countries, even of parallel climates, have failed. Many of them grow wild, and none but a careless cultivation is bestowed on any. The principal fruit trees are planted in a straggling manner about the villages. The common peasantry cultivate only the most ordinary fruits. The great select the most delicate varieties; but the European colonists are the most successful in this culture, and it is at their settlements that the greatest abundance of fine fruits is to be seen. The *Garcinia mangostana*, or mangosteen, ranks first in order, being the most exquisite of all known fruits. It is mildly acid without being luscious. In appearance it resembles the pomegranate, though smaller and more perfectly globular. A thick hardish rind incloses three or four large seeds, surrounded by a soft semitransparent pulp of a pure white colour, sometimes slightly tinged with crimson. This pulp is the esculent part, and may be eaten without injury in larger quantity than any other fruit. It is only in the western parts of the archipelago that the mangosteen is a native. It does not thrive in the Moluccas, and in some does not grow at all. Luzon, in the Philippines, is the highest latitude in which it is brought to grow.

The mangosteen.

The durion, formerly mentioned[m], is preferred to the mangosteen by the natives; but its peculiar odour is offensive to strangers. The tree is lofty; the fruit resembles the bread-fruit, though larger. In structure and disposition the fruit resembles the mangosteen: The seeds which the pulp incloses are as large as pigeons' eggs, and when roasted, have the taste and flavour of chesnuts. One durion costs more than a dozen pine-apples. It is never found wild, like the mangosteen. In geographical locality it is equally limited. The attempts made to transplant these fruits to the isle of France, and other equatorial

The durion.

[m] P. 428.

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regions, have always failed.—The common jack, the produce of the *Artocarpus integrifolia*, a fruit of enormous size, and growing in great abundance, is much eaten by the natives, and is exceedingly sweet and nutritious. The champadak, another and more delicious species of the jack, is also cultivated. The mango attains as great perfection here as in Malabar. The orange and lemon tribe are widely diffused over this and all the islands of the archipelago. The shaddock is found in the greatest perfection. The lime is abundant, and productive through the whole year. Pine-apples are good and exceedingly plenty, but are very little in request. The jamboo, the guava, the papaya, the custard apple or *anona*, the cashew, (*Anacardium occidentale*,) the pomegranate, the tamarind, and the pumpkins, and other cucurbitaceæ, are only a few of the numerous fruits of this island. The flower-bearing trees most frequently cultivated for the market, are the *champaka*, (a species of *michelia*,) the malor, (*nyctanthes*,) and the tanjung, or *Mimusops elengi*. Water lilies are particularly frequent in Java. The *Plumeria obtusa*, or camboja, is a strong but agreeable aromatic, and the *Ocymum sulasi*, or Hindoo tulsi, another aromatic flower, is cultivated for the express purpose of strewing on graves at the annual festival observed in honour of ancestors. Roses and other European flowers dwindle in size and lose their perfume when transplanted to this part of the world.—Cotton is the most important article of commerce produced in these islands, but that of Java is the coarsest and least valuable. Materials for cordage are obtained from the *rami*, a species of nettle five or six feet high, and from a tree called the *bagu*. Among the useful plants are the rattan, (*Calamus rotang*,) the bamboo, and the *nipa* or cabbage palm, the leaves of which are better adapted for thatch than any others. There are many valuable timber trees, such as the teak, which has been found so durable a material for ship-building, though containing an odorous resin which unfits it for making casks and other vessels intended to contain wine, but it makes excellent water casks. The teak of Java is superior to that

Flowers.

Plants used in manufacture.

of the Birman empire, but not so good as that of Malabar. Those parts of the world which lie between China and Persia are the only regions in which this tree grows. Timaca, ebony, and many others fitted for ornamented cabinet work, are also found here. Among the gums, that which is called *damar* is the most important. It is produced in very large quantity, and without any trouble, from several trees. Its greatest consumption takes place in the paying of the bottoms of ships and boats. Three species of indigo are cultivated in this island, but the preparation of it for use is conducted in a very rude and slovenly manner. Kasumba, American arnotto, turmeric, sappan or Brazil wood, mankudee, and ubar, which last resembles the logwood of Honduras, are the principal other dye stuffs produced in this island. Some substances, exerting powerful effects on the human frame, which may be turned to advantage at some future period in this country, are the datura, the cubeb pepper, and the *upas*, of which there are two sorts, the one called *anchan*, and the other *chetik*. The qualities of the upas have given rise to some ridiculous exaggerations; the chetik species, the most powerful of the two, kills a dog in six or seven minutes, but it does not kill men or animals at a distance, nor does it blast the growth of every surrounding plant.

Produce for exportation.

For foreign exportation, Java produces the sugar cane, of which there are several varieties, three of which are believed to be indigenous. They grow with very little culture. Pepper grows both cultivated and wild. Coffee and cocoa are also in some measure cultivated, the latter only in small quantities in this island.

Animals.

Buffalos of a small brownish breed are here tamed and yoked in large waggons. Sheep are few in number, with pendent ears and coarse hairy wool. The horses are small, but strong and lively. The wild boars breed in great numbers in the forests. We are told by travellers that the rhinoceros is found in the island. Among the monkeys of Java are the *Simia apedio* and the *Simia aygula*. In the woods are found the flying squirrel, and another species,

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the *bicolor*. The peacock is very common in the forests. There are also wild cocks with brilliant plumage and white crests, slightly tinged with violet. The marshes are inhabited by that formidable serpent, the *Boa constrictor*, which swallows birds and even goats entire. There are also crocodiles of enormous size. Flying dragons flutter in the neighbourhood of the towns during the heat of the day, like the bats of Europe, and are easily caught. The *Cicada tibicen*, or musical grasshopper, perches on the trees, where he utters a piercing noise like the sound of a trumpet. Moths and red ants find their way into every crevice, destroying every thing that comes in their way.

Esculent birds' nests.

Java produces in great abundance the *hirundo esculenta*, that species of swallow the nests of which are used as an article of luxurious food among the Chinese. This nest has the shape of a common swallow's nest, and has the appearance of fibrous ill-concocted isinglass. Even the common house martin, and all the other swallows in that country, mix more or less of this substance in the structure of their nests. The *hirundo esculenta* always builds in the caves of the rocks, at a distance from any human dwelling. Some are fifty miles from the sea. Along the sea-shore they are particularly abundant, the caverns being there most frequent. The manner in which this substance is procured, and the question whether it is entirely a secretion, elaborated in some part of the body, are points not yet ascertained by actual examination. The finest are those obtained before the nest has been contaminated by the young birds; these are pure white; the inferior ones are dark, sometimes streaked with blood, or mixed with feathers. Some of the caverns are very difficult of access, and dangerous to climb, so that none can collect the nests but persons accustomed to the trade from their youth.

Geographical divisions.

The island of Java is divided by the Dutch into four unequal parts; the kingdoms of Bantam, Jocatra, and Cheribon; and the eastern shore, extending from the river Lossary to the straits of Bali. This eastern shore is subdivided into three parts; the territories of the emperor

Susuhunam, those of the Sultan, and the provinces under the immediate jurisdiction of the Company.

Kingdom of Bantam.

The city of Bantam, the capital of the kingdom of that name, has a harbour which has been rendered inaccessible by its extreme unhealthiness, and the gradual accumulation of the coral reefs. The king has usually furnished to the Company 3,000,000 lbs. of pepper annually, at twenty-eight livres per quintal. The fort of the residency is garrisoned by a small body of Europeans. This depopulated kingdom contains no other place of note; and, according to the latest census, is peopled by 90,000 inhabitants, who live mostly in the villages scattered along the sea-coast [n].

Kingdom of Jocatra. BATAVIA.

The old kingdom of Jocatra contains the famous capital of the Dutch Indies, the city of Batavia, in the site of the ancient Javanese city of Sunda-Calappa [o]. The Dutch seem to have given the preference to this situation for the convenience of the inland navigation. It is, in this respect, a second Holland. Almost every street has a broad canal, the stagnant waters of which are more remarkable for poisoning than for embellishing the city. The public buildings are mostly old, heavy, and in bad taste. The city is inclosed by a stone rampart of moderate height, but old, and falling to decay. The citadel contains apartments which serve as a retreat to the governor-general and council of India during a siege. It contains, also, the great magazines of the Company. Batavia cannot be besieged by sea; the water being so shallow that a gun boat can scarcely come within cannon shot of the ramparts, except in a narrow channel called "the river," defended on both sides by moles extending for half a mile into the harbour, and terminating under the fire of the strongest part of the fort. The harbour of Batavia is reckoned the finest in India; and is of size sufficient to contain the largest fleets. The population, including the suburbs and *campongs*, or

[n] Memoirs of Batavia, vol. I. p. 6. III. 424.

[o] Description of Batavia, contained in the Memoirs of the Society of Batavia, I. p. 42.

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Chinese, Macassar, and other dependent villages, was found, by an accurate census taken in 1799, to amount to 173,117 souls; of whom 20,000 were Chinese, and 17,000 negro slaves[p].

Environs of Batavia.

The environs contain beautiful walks, resembling the boulevards of Paris[q], with rows of country seats, in which the Europeans seek protection from the insalubrity of the climate. At Weltefrede, and at Mester-Cornelis, there are elegant barracks for the troops. The inland provinces, such as Priangan, Sookapoma, and Samadang, are governed by vassal princes, almost reduced to the condition of mere civil magistrates. The whole population of Jocatra, at the time of the census now alluded to, was 340,915 souls.

Kingdom of Cheribon.

The small but fertile kingdom of Cheribon furnished the Company with 330,000 lbs. of rice, 1,000,000 of sugar, and 1,200,000 of coffee. Cheribon, the capital, is a large city. Its sovereign reigns over 90,000 subjects, and takes the empty title of Sultan. About four miles from the city

Tomb of a Mahometan saint.

is the tomb of Ibn Sheik Mollana, the first apostle of Islam who visited this island, and consequently held in great veneration, and much visited by the Mussulmans. The tomb is shaded with palms, and near it five terraces are cut in the mountain, the parapets of which are ornamented with beautiful flower-pots, presented by the kings of the numerous adjoining islands[r].

The Company's government.

In the east part of the northern shore, which is subject to the Company, we observe the following towns in an order from west to east. Tagal, containing 8000 inhabitants; Samarang, the second city of the island, the capital of the Dutch government, containing a population of 30,000; Japara, formerly the capital of this coast; Javana; Rembang, the great mart for *jati* wood[s]; Surabaya

[p] Batavian Memoirs, III. p. 425; compared with II. p. 61.
[q] MS. of M. Deschamps.
[r] Valentyn, p. 37.
[s] Valentyn, Description of Java, p. 15.

a fortified town, very healthy, and provided with a road-stead, where vessels may go in and out in all weathers; the fortresses of Pamanoncan and Baniuwangni[t], in the deserted province of Balambonung, the capital of which was destroyed by the ravages of war. The population along this coast in general, has diminished during the 18th century; and the Company's subjects in 1774 did not exceed 414,000. It is not unlikely, however, that a long period of peace subsequent to that date has ameliorated the general state of the country.

Kingdom of Matarам.

The inland and southern parts of the eastern division of the island, formed the political state, the sovereign of which bore the titles of Susuhunam, and emperor of Java. By giving encouragement to civil dissensions, the Company has contrived to divide the empire, previously much reduced, between two princes, one of whom resides at Sura-Carta, and reigns over 512,000 subjects, with the title of Emperor; the other lives at Jogo-Carta, has 522,000 subjects, and the title of Sultan[u]. A German military man who visited the court of Susuhunam, describes it in the most flattering colours[x]. The air is pure, cool, and perfumed with the odour of delicious flowers. In one part the traveller wanders among vast plains covered with rice, cotton, coffee, and vegetables of every kind. In another, ascending the hills, he sees the limpid rivulets forming little cascades under the shadow of close and deep forests. It abounds with natural grottos of delightful coolness. In the distance, the eye ranges over seas, rocky hills, and volcanoes, varying by their perpetual smoke the azure of a serene sky.

Population.

The population of the island of Java, amounting to more than two millions, consists of natives or Bhoomi[y], and strangers. Of the latter, the Dutch, Chinese, Macassars, and Balians are the most conspicuous. There is a native tribe of negroes who wander among the mountains,

[t] MS. by M. Deschamps.

[u] Batavian Memoirs, III. p. 427. [x] Wollzogen, Lettres, p. 378.

[y] Deschamps, in the Annales des Voyages, t. I. p. 145, &c.

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and another, called Isalam, who live on the sea-shore; but their physical character and their language are not known with any certainty. The native Javanese seem to be a Malayan race who long ago settled in this island, and were subsequently civilized by a colony of Talinga Hindoos, from whom they derived several terms of their language, and many institutions.

Description of the Javanese.

The Javanese in general are of middling stature, with tawny complexions, long hair, and the nose a little flattened. As for diseases, they are exempt from the gout, and are less liable to nervous disorders, such as apoplexy, and epilepsy, than the people of Europe. They are liable to several cutaneous diseases, some of which are unknown in Europe. Some loathsome contagious diseases, such as yaws and sibbens, are frequent among them, and supposed to have been brought by the Chinese. Children are liable to worms, and other fatal complaints of the intestines, in consequence of their unlimited indulgence in raw vegetables and fruit.

Physical constitution.

The men are strong, athletic, and persevering, though not active in their personal exertions. The porters will carry a heavy load, walking thirty miles a-day, for several days in succession; but they neither run nor leap, and never attempt feats of activity. The arts of the juggler and tumbler are quite unknown among them. They bathe frequently, yet are defective in personal cleanliness. They live frugally on rice and fish, with a few spices. Intoxicating liquors are seldom indulged in, and only at the public feasts, when the chiefs sometimes make themselves sufficiently merry, and caper about with no small extravagance.

Moral character.

They have been described as devoid of industry, being satisfied with a life of comparative poverty and privation; but, whenever they are placed in a situation in which the fruits of their industry are secured to them, they are found very well disposed to improve their condition by virtuous exertions. They have an abundant portion of fortitude, which is displayed rather in suffering with patience than in braving dangers; but, when their vengeance is roused, they perform acts of

desperate valour, bordering on insanity. In understanding they are slow; of narrow though sound judgment; and much inferior in subtlety to the Hindoos and Chinese. They are tolerably good imitators, though not equal to the Hindoos. They have a remarkably delicate musical ear, and readily learn to play the most difficult and complex airs on any instrument. They have an abundant share of laudable curiosity. Mr. Crawford mentions an instance of a sagacious chief of Samarang, who lately had his wife and children well educated, the latter being sent for this purpose to Calcutta, and who afforded a promising instance of the capability of these islanders to profit by a liberal education. The Javanese are honourably distinguished from the civilized nations of Asia by their regard for truth. To persons accustomed to the people of Indostan, the candour of the Javanese appears singularly valuable. The truth is readily elicited in a court of justice, and it is not uncommon for the criminal to make an ample confession of his guilt. Having no capacity for intrigue, they are much imposed on by strangers. They are neither litigious nor avaricious, but tenacious of their rights, and disposed to demand justice with great boldness, considering the tyrannical character of their governments. They are not unkind or oppressive to inferiors, and are much more ready to relieve distress than the continental Indians. They are not irascible, or addicted to abusive language, and have the character of great and willing hospitality. They are remarkably credulous and superstitious, believing in dreams, omens, fortunate days, the casting of nativities, supernatural endowments, sorceries, and enchantments. Their forests, mountains, and caves, are peopled by numerous invisible beings of their own creation, or adopted from the various sorts of people who have come among them. Their ancient code denounced the most barbarous punishments for practices which were imputed to sorcery, such as writing the name of another person on a shroud, on a bier, on an image of paste, or on a leaf, which is then buried or

Integrity.

Credulity.

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suspended from a tree, or placed on haunted ground, or where two roads meet. For these, and numerous other silly acts which the law enumerates, the punishment is death, not only to the individual, but to his parents and his children. That code is now not in force except in the neighbouring island of Bali. But Mr. Crawford mentions two recent instances of very whimsical superstition in Java. It was discovered by accident, that, from some motive of this kind, the skull of a buffalo was conducted from one end of the island to another; the point insisted on being, never to let it rest, but keep it in constant progressive motion. It was believed that some dreadful imprecation was denounced against the man who should let it fall. After travelling many hundred miles, it reached Samarang, where the Dutch governor caused it to be thrown into the sea. No resentment was expressed, and the matter dropped; but it was never discovered how or where it had originated[z]. In 1814, a smooth road, fifty or sixty miles long, and twenty feet broad, leading to the top of an inland mountain called Sumbong, was suddenly formed, crossing no rivers, but passing in an undeviating line through private property of all descriptions. The population of whole districts was employed in the labour, and all because an old woman pretended to have dreamed that a divine personage was to descend on the mountain.

Political impostors, preaching a new religion, very often take advantage of this national facility of the Javanese, and give rise to bloody insurrections. These pretenders are called *kraman*. One who was apprehended in 1812 had disturbed the district in which he appeared for six years.

Savage passions.

The Javanese are much addicted to revenge, never forgiving an injury, and long cherishing the deepest resentments. Their revenge and impatience occasionally burst out in those insane and horrible excesses called mucks, which are most common in Celebes, but occur also in Java and most of the other islands. The state of society in

[z] Crawford's History, vol. I. p. 57.

Java, as in the other islands, produces among the inhabitants a disregard for human life. The lives of the people are not at all valued by the chiefs, or by one another. Familiar with death, they view it with no horror. An assassin may be hired for twenty shillings, provided the person to be assassinated be a plebeian. Such a practice is indeed not common, as a man generally takes vengeance with his own hand.

The Javanese, and other islanders in this part of the world, have been accused of treachery, but the authority on which this accusation is advanced is more than questionable. They show much integrity in their transactions with one another. It is only in their intercourse with strangers that gross deceit is practised, in lawless acts of piracy. As for the resistance which they have made to the restraints imposed on them by their European masters, and their secret attempts to evade the operation of them, they had certainly more to complain of than the party to whom their conduct was obnoxious. Their women are not at all secluded, and, though wives are purchased, they are not treated with contempt or disdain. Among the lower ranks, the women are very active and industrious. Those of the better classes are withdrawn from the public gaze, but not immured. The wife and daughters of the chief of Samarang attended the public parties given by the Dutch and British, and conducted themselves with the most creditable propriety and delicacy. Polygamy is practised, but the first wife is the only one who possesses the same rank with the husband, and is mistress of the family. In Java, there is a greater laxity of morals than in the other islands. Women very frequently divorce their husbands. Complimentary inquiries after men's wives are not, as in India, thought improper, but rather courteous. Parental attachment and filial respect are well maintained to the latest period of life. Fraternal affection between children of the same mother is warm and active. They are all much attached to their tribe, and to the place of their birth.

Treatment of women.

In their marriages the Javanese differ from the Hin- Customs.

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doos. The women marry at fifteen, and the men about eighteen or nineteen. Widows and widowers marry again at any age; and discordant matches, from disparity of ages, are comparatively rare. The present sultan of Java is married to his cousin, who is three years older than himself. Differences are observed in the mode and terms of the married state, according to the relative rank of the parties; as when the woman is of superior family to the man, or his equal, or his inferior. The last sort of connection is commenced without any form or ceremony. They give their children their names when the umbilical cord drops off. Some give an Arabic name. This is common among the Malays, and is intended as an expression of piety. Others give the child such an appellation as "the handsome one," or "the weak one;" and the parents will be called the father and mother of the handsome or the weak one. Thus the names are frequently mere titles, and are changed at every promotion of a man's state or circumstances. This would render it difficult to identify individuals if they were liable to a frequent change of habitation. They bury their dead in the manner of the Mahometans, and attend much to beauty and simplicity in the appearance of their burying grounds. In showing respect for superiors they sit with the head covered. In approaching a superior, and retiring, they stoop as low as is consistent with locomotion. A superior testifies his most marked regard for an inferior by offering him the chewed refuse of the betel, which the latter swallows with great satisfaction. They never salute by kissing, but by applying the nose to the head or neck of the person saluted; hence the term for smelling signifies to salute. The chewing of betel, of holding tobacco in the mouth, and of eating opium, are almost universal practices. They are passionately fond of gaming, particularly of staking on the issue of combats between pugnacious animals, such as cocks, quails, and even crickets, which they excite to combat by tickling them with a blade of grass. They will even childishly risk their money on the strength and hardness of a

Amusements.

nut. They are also fond of the spectacle of fights between the large ferocious animals, such as the tiger and the buffalo. The tiger being shy and unwilling to fight, is shut up with his antagonist in a close cage. The buffalo exerts himself to crush him to death on the bars of his cage, in which attempt he generally succeeds. The efforts of the tiger are directed to the head and throat in a sudden and insidious manner. The first onset is tremendous, but if one or the other is not immediately victorious there is no interest in the combat; both animals worn out are reluctant to renew their efforts. Under these circumstances the natives use abominable means for rousing them; such as firebrands, boiling water, poisonous nettles, and infusions of capsicum poured on the lacerated skin. They scarcely ever amuse themselves with those exercises which display address or agility. The country is unfavourable to the chase; and it is but seldom that they hunt. Some of the more abject savage tribes indeed hunt the deer, the hog, and the monkey, as their chief means of subsistence. In some of the ill-peopled districts in the eastern and western extremities of the island, they follow the chase for amusement, but it is a mere butchery of game, without sport or address. The tiger is sometimes pursued with more skill. An extensive circle of spearmen is formed round his known haunt; this is gradually contracted, till the animal, hemmed in on all sides, is compelled to attempt an escape by rushing through the phalanx, in which attempt he is commonly killed by the numbers and dexterity of the hunters. A similar scene is sometimes acted before the Javanese princes at their palaces. Dancing is considered as a necessary accomplishment to every Javanese chief; and they practise it at their public festivities, brandishing, at the same time, their krooses, and mingling with the hired dancing women. In this amusement respectable women never join. The intellectual amusements of the Javanese consist in listening to professed story-tellers, and a rude species of drama, sometimes executed by living actors, sometimes by means of puppets. In the first case the whole is performed by

Tiger fights.

The drama.

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men. In the second they sometimes use ordinary puppets, much inferior to those of Europe; and sometimes certain scenic shadows, which are peculiar and national. Their acting is a sort of pantomime, accompanied by a recitative performance, read by a conspicuous individual called the *dalang*, who sits full in view of the audience, and, before the interlocutors commence acting each scene, repeats the narrative of what they have to perform. The whole is accompanied by a Javanese band of music. The subjects are taken from the Hindoo legends and the fabulous parts of their own history. They have also exhibitions of men personating the appearance and manners of wild beasts, which are very well managed. All these amusements excite a lively interest in a native audience.

Houses.

Their houses consist of apartments, each of which stands on four pillars. Those of the rich consist of a collection of them; those of the poorer classes of one only. The houses are never solitary, but always grouped into villages or towns. Some remains of brick and lime walls show that architecture has declined among them in modern times. There are arches still standing, but they have now lost the art of building them. The art of weaving is rudely conducted, and entirely in the hands of women. A cubit of coarse cloth, five spans wide, is a common day's work. They are ignorant of calico printing; and as a substitute for it, they daub their cloth with wax in particular figures, and then put it through the dying vat, thus obtaining a coloured ground while the figures are left white. The silk worm has never been bred in this island, though its climate is undoubtedly favourable for it. With regard to the metals, their chief skill is exerted on gold. Iron is not found in Java, and is extremely rare in the whole archipelago. It bears a high price, and the art of the blacksmith is held in a sort of reverence. The term for that craft is equivalent to the word "learned." His principal skill is displayed in the manufacture of the dagger or kreese, and the spear. They do not possess the art of tempering their blades. The kreese is a piece of ordi-

Useful arts.

nary iron, which seldom recovers its shape when bent. Ship-building is the only department of carpentry in which they have made any proficiency. There is no art which they have carried to so great perfection as that of fishing, which is chiefly conducted by drag-nets, and traps or snares skilfully formed of pallisades. A large supply is obtained from the salt marshes of the coast, which are embanked for the purpose of rearing and feeding sea-fish. This practice was probably introduced from China or some part of Chin-India. The fish are, for the sake of economy, almost always eaten salted and dried. They universally use a sauce formed by the putrefaction of small fish, chiefly prawns; and no food is deemed palatable without it. They manufacture great abundance of salt by slow solar evaporation, and obtain it, mixed with some soil and dust, but free from those saline admixtures belonging to sea-water, which injure the culinary article by the bitterness and deliquescent quality which they impart to it. They manufacture gunpowder from the nitre found in the caves frequented by bats and swallows, and from sulphur found near the volcanoes; but it is always an inferior article, and the gunpowder imported from Europe is much in request. They are unacquainted with the art of cutting and polishing precious stones. Their diamonds are cut by Hindoos; their rubies and sapphires are worn in the rough state. The manufacture of glass seems never to have been known among them. In the mechanical arts, however, they have none of that bigotry in favour of their own methods and tools which characterizes the Hindoos, and show an open docility which would soon profit by instruction.

Dress.

Cotton is the grand material of their dress, which is a medium between the close habit of the Europeans and the loose flowing robe of the continental Asiatics. The ancient practice seems to have been to go with the head uncovered, which is still followed in the neighbouring island of Bali. At present the Javanese generally wear a cap in imitation of the Mahometan turban. The legs are always bare; the feet are often covered with sandals, in imitation

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of the Arabs. They adorn their persons with diamonds, gold ornaments, and flowers. Men of all ranks invariably wear the kreese. They constantly file and blacken the teeth. It is on the canine teeth that the first operation is performed. They express their contempt for persons who do not follow this practice, by saying that white teeth make men like dogs and monkeys.

Calculations.

The Javanese, like the rest of the inhabitants of these islands, are altogether unacquainted with arithmetical processes. The Chinese are much employed by them in their mercantile transactions. Though they know the Hindoo numeral characters, they frequently calculate by cutting notches on slips of wood. The women are more expert than the men in all pecuniary transactions, and are commonly employed as brokers. The methods used by the people of this island have rather greater facilities than those of their neighbours, their numerical scale extending to ten billions. Some of the Indian languages have no term for any number higher than a thousand.

Music.

Mr. Crawford, who resided some time in Java in different official situations, considers the Javanese as having made very great proficiency in music for so rude a state of society. They have wind instruments, stringed instruments, and instruments of percussion. The two first are rude. The mountaineers have a sort of Pan's reed, made of bamboo, which is not used for any melody, but merely made to give a confused sound by means of a rapid motion, given to the whole contained in a frame. They have fifes from Indostan and trumpets from Persia. The drum is a native instrument. Their gong is perhaps of Chinese origin. They have a great variety of *staccados*, some made of graduated pieces of wood, which give a sweet sound when struck with a hammer, others of metal, which have a stronger sound. These have various arrangements and contrivances for improving the sound.

Language.

The Javanese language is praised by Mr. Crawford for the beauty and regularity of its written alphabet, having a separate mark for each sound, and no mark expressing

more than one. They have an ancient language called Kawi, which is peculiar to the priesthood, and in which the mythological writings, called the Mahabarat and the Ramayana, are composed in verse. It contains many Sanscrit terms, but seems to be radically native and original. The language in common use is sufficiently well adapted to the ordinary purposes of life, but not to any thing like abstract reasoning or science, in which the Javanese have never had any practice. Their compositions are wretchedly feeble and empty, containing nothing to reward research. Their chief productions are the dramas already mentioned. In their letters and conversations they have, in a great measure, a separate vocabulary in addressing a superior. In this language of deference, which is associated with feelings of delicacy and refinement, both the names of provinces and cities, and the terms for common ideas, are changed for others. Notwithstanding the long period in which the Mahometan religion has been established, and Arabian literature made known, (between 300 and 400 years,) the Arabic language and literature have made very little progress among them. A little Arabic is taught in the schools, but few even of the upper ranks make any proficiency in it. All the Arabic writings circulated in Java relate to religion and law. In writing their own language they are extremely inexpert in the mechanical as well as in the mental part. Before the introduction of the Mahometan religion they knew nothing of the writing of history, and were as ignorant of chronology as the Hindoos.—The histories of transactions are now written under the direction of their princes, who employ the most expert individuals in versification and penmanship that they can find. The great object is to turn every event into a long solemn tale, in a string of verses. Histories.

One of them gives an account of the following event. Surapati, a native of Bali, the slave of a Dutch citizen of Batavia, raised himself to sovereign authority in opposition to the native and European governments, and maintained it till his death. The Dutch, having defeated his descen-

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dants and despoiled their territory, took up the dead body of the extraordinary founder, and treated it with indignity. This vile transaction is thus described by the Javanese. "The commissary remained long at Pasuruhan, making diligent search for the body of Surapati, but it was not to be found. He was distressed at this, and said to the inhabitants, 'I will reward whoever finds for me the body of Surapati.' Those people forgot their lord, and accepted the proffered bribe. The commissary was shown the spot where was the chief's grave, but it was level, and no one could discern it to be a tomb. The body was dug for and found. It was still entire as when alive, and shed a perfume like a flower-garden. The Hollanders bore it away to the camp, and placing it in a sitting posture in a chair, the officers took the corpse by the hand, saluting it according to the custom of their country, and tauntingly exclaiming, 'This is the hero Surapati, the mighty warrior, the enemy of the Dutch.' After this, they threw the corpse into a great fire, and burnt it to ashes, and the ashes they took and preserved. The commissary all this time rejoiced in his heart."

Sunda language.

Besides the Javanese language, there is one spoken by the mountaineers in the west part of the island, and over one-third of the area of the whole, though only by a tenth part of its inhabitants. The same language is spoken on the opposite coast of Sumatra, and is called the Sunda. It is more guttural, and in other particulars has less euphony than the Javanese. The letters *d* and *t* are wanting in it. It has some tendency to a separate style for deference, which is not carried so far as in the Javanese. Although this language has an alphabet and written character, there are no books in it, as the people have no national literature. The vestiges of their writing are only found on ancient rude stones. Those who aspire at a little education, learn Arabic and Javanese, and business is generally conducted in the latter.

Ancient religion and antiquities.

The ancient religion of Java was a sort of Brahminism, though not in that strict and dogmatical form in which it

exists in Indostan, and partaking of the doctrines and spirit of the religion of Buddha. Some of the mountaineers still abstain from animal food, and believe in the transmigration of souls[a]. They trace their origin to a monkey, which they call *woo-woo*. The nature of the ancient system is chiefly to be inferred from the antiquities still to be found in this island. There are many architectural remains in its best parts. In some places there are large groups of small temples of hewn stone, with a statue in each; in others, large single temples of the same materials without any cavity; in others, single temples of brick and mortar; besides which, there are stone temples of ruder construction and more recent. The most perfect remains are the ruins of Brambanan, in the districts of Pajang and Mataram. One group goes under the name of "the thousand temples." There is a temple in the middle, sixty feet high, surrounded by four rows of small temples, all pyramidal, of the same character, and containing a profusion of sculpture on large blocks of hewn stone[b]. The temple of Boro-Budur, in the mountain and romantic land of Kadu, is a square building, embracing the summit of a small hill, and ending in a dome. The whole building is 116 feet high, consisting of nine terraces, the lowest six being faced with square ascending walls, and the three uppermost containing each a circular row of latticed cages of hewn stone, in the form of bee-hives. At the base, each side measures 526 English feet. There is no concavity except in the dome. From the engraving given of it by Mr. Crawford[c], it seems to present an elegant and imposing appearance. The oldest structures are remarkable for the excellence of the materials, their great solidity, and the minute laboriousness of the execution. There is an evident design in every group, and in every individual temple in Brambanan. They contain numerous friezes, cornices, architraves, and flat pilastres carved on the stone, but no balustrades, or colonnades, a defect which gives them a heavy look.

[a] De Wurmb, p. 134.

[b] Crawford's History, vol. II. p. 197.

[c] Frontispiece to his second volume.

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None of the representations are gross or indecent. There are many vegetable decorations, but fewer figures of animals; the most usual are the lion, the elephant, and the deer; the cow is never seen. There are many historic groups, and several containing figures of Buddha; but in the latter, that personage is never represented as an object of worship in a temple, none of the figures round him being in a posture of adoration, and no attribute of a Hindoo divinity being attached to him. The rudest and most recent class of temples are mere heavy masses, without plan or design, the interior abounding in sculptures, generally rude, often half-finished, and sometimes extremely indelicate. They are peculiar in containing representations of native manners and costume, (frequently, for example, introducing the kreese,) and in the circumstance of having inscriptions. Java contains a variety of genuine Hindoo images, both in brass and stone. Those of Siva are the most frequent. Durga; Ganesa; Surya, the deity of the Sun; the Bull of Mahadeva; the Linga, and the Yoni, are the most common except those of Buddha. The latter are never in the great central temples, but only in the smaller surrounding ones. Several of them are together, and when an object of worship exists in the same place they look towards it, thus appearing not to represent deities, but sages worshipping Siva. Mr. Crawford concludes from the various relicts of Javanese antiquities, that the Hindooism of that island was the worship of Siva, Durga, and the Linga and Yoni, united to Buddhism, and that it was a reformation of the bloody and indecent worship of Siva, brought about by persons of more kindly affections than the rest of their countrymen. The word Buddha is not associated with any precise form of faith or worship in the minds of the Javanese of the present day, but merely used as a name for idolatry or paganism, as distinguished from the religion of Mahomet.

Present religion.

The Mahometan religion was introduced from Arabia, and has been kept alive by the intercourse which has subsisted with that country. Its most distinguished triumph

took place in 1478, in the capture of the city of Mojopahit, and the destruction of that Hindoo monarchy, by Raden Patah, who erected a Mahometan empire in Java, assuming the title of Susuhunam, or apostle, equivalent to that of caliph. The Javanese are the most lax of all the Mahometans of these islands, both in principles and practice, in consequence of the Arabs having been excluded by the commercial jealousy of the Dutch. Wine is drunk openly, even at their religious festivals. The Mahometan institutions are mixed with marks of the Hindoo system. The priests are the successors in duty to the priest and astrologer of the Hindoo village, a peaceful and respectable portion of the peasantry, living on terms of perfect equality with the ordinary cultivators. Many of the inhabitants do not know the name of their prophet. The higher classes pay more attention to the forms of their religion, but in the use of wine and opium, and in the laws against games of chance and usury, scarcely any among them entertain the smallest scruple; the only negative precept which they rigidly obey is that of abstinence from pork. It is remarkable that some of the royal families abstain from touching beef, thus evincing a traditional remnant of Hindoo feeling.

Government.

The native government in Java is a hereditary despotism, exactly such as is established in all the great empires of Asia. A Javanese monarch, being also chief priest of his religion, is under no control from religion or the priesthood. He has no hereditary nobility under him to share or limit his authority. He is addressed in the most bombastic style of flattering and abject etiquette. His ministers and vicegerents are, in their different departments or proymces, invested with nearly all the authority of the sovereign. They are now, however, overawed by their Dutch masters, though they continue to display all the pomp of eastern despotism. The court of the Susuhunam preserves more of the former national customs than most others. All the great servants of the crown are designated by the most high sounding titles. His civil and

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military officers are the "Suns of Prudence," and the "Suns of Heroism[d]." His residence, subjected to the power of a small Dutch fort, is known by the name of Surakarta, which means "The habitation of the Sun." The palace is inhabited and guarded by 10,000 females, of whom 3000 belong to the royal harem. The inner inclosure of the palace is called the *thalm*. A circular court, two miles in circumference, is adorned with statues of Javanese heroes. Here the fêtes and tiger fights are exhibited. Two tamarind trees present an inviolable asylum to every person who has a request to present to the emperor[e]. Yet the whole force which this prince can command scarcely amounts to 20,000 or 30,000 men, and these badly armed. The people are treated by their sovereign and chiefs with the most contemptuous indifference, and their lives sacrificed to sport and caprice. Instead of mock fights for the amusement of the great, real battles are exhibited, in which the wretched combatants are, without the slightest quarrel, instigated to destroy one another. Yet Java is the only country of this archipelago where slavery does not exist among the natives. The revenue generally consists of one half of the produce of wet, and one third of that of dry lands. There seems to be no right of property in the soil among the subjects, and there are no large accumulated estates. Yet the condition of the cultivator is more fortunate than in any country of the east, in consequence of the great demand for cultivators and for labour in general. A sixth part of the produce is the pay of shearers. The servants of the king, from his ministers of state to his grooms, are paid by allotments of corn, or of land, or of a certain number of cultivators. This system supersedes the employment of numerous revenue agents, and a consequent system of chicanery, and probably contributes to give the Javanese a character of greater integrity than the Hindoos. Capitation taxes, fishery taxes, taxes on consumption, and transit duties, are

Revenue.

[d] Valentyn, p. 56.

[e] Wollzogen, Lettres sur Java, p. 385.

also levied. The laws have the defects common to all eastern codes; but the administration of justice is rendered more pure than in India, by the greater honesty of the people, and the greater reliance due to the testimony of witnesses, who are not sworn except on occasions of peculiar solemnity; and their regard for an oath will restrain them in the most trying situations. An oath taken by the accused to his own innocence, is thought entitled to respect and credit.

Connection of the Dutch nation with Java.

The Portuguese visited Java in 1511, but did not attempt any conquests. The Dutch arrived in 1595, which was 117 years after the establishment of the Mahometan religion. Their object was plunder, under the name and appearance of commerce. The simple natives were considered as fair game to their rapacity, and were ill fitted to withstand the intelligence, experience, and violence of these visitors. Till 1612 they traded chiefly with the kingdom of Bantam. Then they removed to Jacatra, where they traded peaceably for six years; but at last quarrelled with the prince who afforded them protection, subdued his country, sacked his capital, put its inhabitants to the sword, and built Batavia on its ruins, in 1619. A handful of Europeans at this time subdued the largest military combinations that were ever formed in Java. Ten years after this, when their fortress was not yet finished, they were attacked in two successive years, by the Sultan of Mataram, whose forces are said to have amounted in the first year to 100,000, and in the next to 120,000. The principal soldiery of the Dutch were Japanese; they also derived the most effectual assistance from the zeal and courage of the Chinese inhabitants. From 1629 to 1675, the Dutch transactions were chiefly mercantile, and here, as in their other settlements, this interval formed the most flourishing period of their colonial history. In this year, having assisted the Sultan of Mataram to subdue a rebellion among his subjects, they made a treaty with him, the object of which was, to restrict the commercial enterprise of his subjects, and thus confer on the Dutch the ad-

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vantages of a monopoly. The effect, however, was, that, these Javanese merchants being ruined, the Dutch had no natives to trade with, and suffered an immediate decline in those commercial profits which they were so desirous by this piece of injustice to extend. In a similar case they interfered in the politics of Bantam, followed the same policy, and with the same ruinous consequences. In 1686 began the public career of the illustrious Surapati, who, from the situation of a slave under a Dutchman of Batavia, raised himself to the head of a sovereignty in the east end of the island, which he and his successors held for twenty years. This state was subdued in 1707, and the importance of it virtually acknowledged by the indignities with which the disinterred remains of that hero were honoured. In 1722 a conspiracy, headed by Peter Erberfield, a Westphalian, for the massacre of all the Christians, was discovered, and the conspirators were put to death with every species of inhuman torture and savage insult[f].

Massacre of the Chinese.

The bloodiest act of the Dutch in Java, or any where else, was the massacre of the Chinese in 1740. That people had been induced, by the security afforded under the European government, to settle in great numbers in this island. But the Dutch, jealous of their numbers, kept them down by excessive taxations, arbitrary punishments, and frightful executions. That people, goaded in this manner, turned their attention to the means of a combined resistance. A few of them having been shipped off to Ceylon for some pretended irregularities, the Chinese around the city flew to arms. Numbers of those within it were put to the torture; and a story of a "wicked and long meditated conspiracy" was thus put together. On a fire happening in the Chinese quarter of the city, the Dutch colonists took the alarm, this being construed into an artifice for commencing a massacre of the Euro-

[f] Crawford, Vol. II. p. 422, &c.

peans. They now rose on the Chinese. The massacre was formally authorized by the regency, the houses were burst open, and the inhabitants dragged out and murdered, without offering the smallest resistance. For fifteen days the appalling scene was continued, and not less than 10,000 were massacred in the town of Batavia alone. Those who escaped fled to the Susuhunam, and joined him in a series of desolating wars and rebellions, which lasted for fifteen years. From the termination of these contests to 1810, the Dutch continued in a state of peace. In that year they moved a force to Yugyacarta, deposed the Sultan of Java, and placed his eldest son on the throne. In 1811 all the Dutch colonies having, along with the mother country, fallen under the dominion of France, the British took possession of Java. In 1813 many liberal and beneficial changes were effected. The island, however, was restored to the Dutch by the treaty of peace in 1816.

Subsequent history.

The Dutch are freely permitted by their government to purchase and hold lands, and are fairly naturalized. The Creole and mixed races labour under the disadvantage of a want of liberal education; are habituated to tyrannize over the persons of the Javanese; and are entirely served by slaves. They are, with few exceptions, ignorant, timid, servile, and indolent. They indulge in convivial parties, but labour under a constant reserve, arising from the arbitrary and jealous nature of their government. The women, marrying early, and habituated to the society of their female slaves, have the character of gross ignorance and insipidity. They entertain a great jealousy of the attractions of the slaves by whom they are surrounded, and under that feeling inflict gross cruelties on them with their own hands[g].

Character of the Dutch colonists.

The Chinese settlers in Java have generally been numerous. The talents of this nation for business and commerce enable them to thrive in these regions; and they

Of the Chinese settlers.

[g] Stavorinus, quoted by Crawford, vol. I. p. 139—149.

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would be much more numerous were it not for the law of the Chinese empire, which strictly prohibits the emigration of women. They are enterprising, keen, and laborious, but luxurious, debauched, and pusillanimous. They are much employed in handicraft trades, in which they greatly excel. They are noted for a total want of faith, the least temptation of gain inducing them to evade the fulfilment of any engagement. All of them are from the province of Fokien or that of Canton; the former maintain the best character, being rarely from the very lowest ranks of society, and less gross and abject in their manners.

ISLAND OF MADURA.

The small ISLAND OF MADURA, near the eastern part of the northern shore of Java, is separated from it by a narrow strait not two miles in breadth. It is supposed to contain 60,000 inhabitants [h], who are a poorer and ruder people than the Javanese. They have a peculiar and totally distinct language, but such of them as are at all educated understand Javanese. The island is subject to a prince who is called *Pahambana*, or "the Adorable." He has been deprived of two of his provinces, and now possesses the western portion of the island [i]. Bull-fights are common in this island, a species of amusement not known in any other part of the archipelago.

BALI.

The ISLAND OF BALI, which is separated from the east end of Java by a narrow strait, has been called by some Dutch authors "little Java." A chain of high mountains, clothed with impenetrable forests, crosses it from north-west to south-east, containing mines of gold, copper, and some say iron; this last metal, however, is rarely found in these islands. The level part is extremely fertile in rice. Gilgil, the sultan's capital, stands on a river of the same name, which falls into the strait of Lombok, at the east end of the island. The inhabitants are fairer and better formed than the Javanese, and are noted for intelligence

[h] Batavian Memoirs, I. 127.

[i] Valentyn, Groot. Java, p. 11—16.

and courage. Slaves are often obtained from this island, and a particular value is set on them. The inhabitants have a peculiar language, which has been extended by conquest to the adjoining island of Lombok. Bali is the only country in the archipelago in which the Hindoo religion is maintained, with the exception of a few of the mountainous parts in the east end of Java. The Balinese belong, in general, to the sect of Siva, and there are among them a few Buddhists. They have divisions of caste similar to those of Indostan; and some outcasts, such as their potters, dyers, dealers in leather and in ardent spirits. The Brahmins are genuine Hindoos, but the people in general are left to their local superstitions. The Brahmins are treated with great respect, and the administration of justice is in their hands. They live entirely on vegetable food, but the people eat animal food without scruple. They perform no such extravagant acts of self-mortification as are so common in India; but the voluntary sacrifices of widows on the funeral piles of their husbands are carried to an excess unknown even in India. It chiefly takes place among the military and mercantile classes. At the funeral of a chief seventy or a hundred women have been known to immolate themselves[k]. The female slaves also devote their lives in a similar manner at the funeral of a royal mistress. They are generally poignarded before their bodies are committed to the flames. Bali was the resort of the Hindoo refugees from Java when persecuted by the Mahometans; about which time the Brahminical system was inculcated on them with increased strictness by fresh Indian missionaries. The inaccessibility of the shores of the island has contributed to preserve it from the encroachments of other religions.

Peculiarity of religion.

The strait of Bali is the safest route for vessels bound to Europe during the western monsoon, when the passage by the strait of Sunda is rendered difficult. The current

[k] Crawford, vol. II. p. 241.

BOOK LIV. in the strait of Bali carries the vessels along even when the winds are contrary.

Borneo. To the north of Java, and the south-west of the Philippine islands, is the great Island of Borneo, the largest in the world next to New Holland. It is probably about 750 miles long, and 620 broad. Its central parts have never been explored by Europeans, and the insalubrity of the climate has prevented them from frequenting its shores. On this account the geography of Borneo is very imperfect. It is probable that the centre of the island, where the springs take their rise, is a marshy table land, inundated during the rainy season. This seems to be the best explanation of an old tradition, of the existence of a lake in the centre from which all its rivers issue [l].

Mountains. The principal chain of mountains must lie north and south, not far from the east coast. The Dutch call them "the crystalline mountains," from the numerous crystals found in them. One of the most remarkable peaks is called by the natives Keenee-Bollo [m]. This island is often devastated by volcanoes and earthquakes. The coasts, for a breadth of from fifteen to fifty miles, present nothing but marshy soil, part of which is a moving bog or half inundated land.

Rivers. It is only by means of the rivers that we can penetrate the country. They have many branches, which are connected together by natural canals. The rivers Pontiana and Sukadana, in the west, and Banjermassin in the south, seem to be the largest. Though situated under the equa-

Climate. tor, this island is subjected to no insupportable heats. The sea and mountain breezes, and the rains, which are constant from November till May, impart a degree of coolness to the atmosphere. At Sukadana the thermometer

[l] Radermacher's Account of Borneo, in the Batavian Memoirs, III. 109. Pilon, ibid. II. 435. Beckmann's Voyage to Borneo, London, 1718.

[m] Meinungen's Letters from Borneo in the Freimuthige, a Berlin journal, 1811, No. 237.

varies very little, being scarcely ever under 82° of Fahrenheit, or above 94°.

Minerals.

Gold is found in Borneo in large quantity, and more is exported from it than from any of the adjoining islands. It is the only island of this archipelago which affords the diamond, a mineral not found indeed in any other country except Indostan and Brazil. The diamond mines are confined to the west and south coasts, being principally situated in the territories of the princes of Pontiana and Banjermassin. The best are at a place called Landak. A perpendicular shaft is first dug, and the stratum containing the diamond is from this pursued in a horizontal direction. The roof is supported by wooden posts, but frequently falls in, to the imminent risk of the miners. They are worked by persons belonging to the aboriginal savage races. The Bugis resident merchants are the great dealers in diamonds. The petty prince of Mattan, in this island, is now in possession of one of the largest diamonds in the world, obtained 100 years ago from the mines of Landak. Its value is £269,378; being less than that of the Russian diamond by £34,822, and £119,773 more than the Pitt diamond.

Vegetables.

Rice, yams, and betel, together with all the fruit trees of India, are cultivated in this island. The cabbage palm is used for food. The forests contain trees of prodigious height, some excellent ship timber, and abundance of the tree which yields the *sanguis draconis*. Groves of nutmeg and clove trees are said to have been found in some mountains of the south west [n]. The best known and most valuable species is the camphor tree, which grows here in all its perfection. It is the *Dryobalanops camphora* of Colebrooke [o]; a different tree from the *Laurus camphora*, the camphor tree of Japan. It grows near the sea-coast, and is found nowhere in the world except in the two

[n] Valentyn's Account of Borneo, IV. 235.

[o] Asiatic Researches, Vol. XII.

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great islands of Sumatra and Borneo. The Borneo camphor sells a third dearer than that of Sumatra; the one being £500 per quintal, and the other £330. That of Japan is much lower. Benzoin, the resin of a species of *styrax*, is found in the same islands as camphor. The principal use of it is for incense in the ceremonies of the Romish, Mahometan, Hindoo, and Chinese worships. It is also used as a luxury in the houses of the great. The Javanese chiefs smoke it along with tobacco. The demand for this article has been steady in all ages. Borneo affords a plentiful supply of rattans, *(Calamus rotang.)* This is a prickly bush, sending forth shoots of amazing length. The manner in which the wood-cutter carries them off ready peeled, is sufficiently simple. He makes a notch in the trunk of any tree at the root of which the rattan is growing, and, cutting the latter, strips off a small portion of the outer bark, inserts the peeled part in the notch, then pulls it through as long as its size continues uniform. One man will carry away 300 or 400 at a time [p]. Pepper, ginger, and cotton, grow here, and the nutmeg and clove are said to have been successfully cultivated.

Animals.

It is in Borneo that the largest of the monkey tribe, the pongo, equalling the human race in stature, is found; also the ourang-outang, or *Simia satyrus*, which comes nearer to man in his looks, manners, and gait. Some have told us that this animal lights fires, at which he broils his fish and rice; but these accounts are not verified by recent observers [q]. The Borneans have an animal which they call the water stag, which lives most generally in the marshy grounds, and seems to be the largest variety of the *Cervus axis* of Pennant. This island contains also two species of wild buffalo of immense size, wild boars, tigers, and elephants. The species of birds are innumerable, and most of them totally different from those of Europe. The swal-

[p] Crawford, vol. III. p. 423, 424.

[q] De Wurmb, Memoirs of Batavia, III. 250.

lows which build edible nests are in great abundance. Wild bees are so numerous that their wax forms a very large article of export. BOOK LIV.

The coasts are occupied by Malays, Javanese, Bugis, or natives of Celebes, and some descendants of Arabs, who are all subject to despotic princes styled sultans. Mahometanism is the prevailing religion. The princes and nobles live in a style of barbarous pomp. Inhabitants.

The kingdom of Banjermassin is the best known to Europeans, occupying the south side of the island. The large river Banjar flows through it. The present capital is Martapana. Here the Dutch have the post of Tatas, near the town of Banjermassin. The west side contains the kingdoms of Landak and Sukadana. The king of Bantam in Java was formerly the sovereign, but resigned his rights to the Dutch company in 1778, and they established a military post at Pontiana. The Sultan of Sambas is the most powerful prince of that coast, which is also the residence of different independent piratical chiefs. Different states.

Borneo, a town containing 3000 houses on the north coast, is the seat of a sultan who formerly reigned over the whole island. Here, as along the whole coast, the houses are often built on a sort of rafts, moored to the shore, so as to fall and rise with the ebbing and flowing of the tide.

The north-east part belongs to the kings or sultans of Soolo. Passir, in the south-east, is the chief commercial resort of the inhabitants of the island of Celebes.

The Malays of the coast, whose principal establishments we have now mentioned, consist of colonies which have come from Java and Sumatra. The interior is peopled with a race of the same original stock, but established for a greater length of time in the island. They are called Biajoos, properly Viajas[r], a term evidently Sanscrit, and Inhabitants of the interior.

r J. Janse de Rooy, in the travels of Vander Aa, quoted by Radermacher. Compare our former observations on the Battas, Weddahs, and other analogous tribes, p. 268.

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synonymous with Battas, Weddahs, and Vyadjas, the names given to certain old tribes in Sumatra, Ceylon, and Indostan. Some others are called Malem, a Hindostanee term for mountaineers [s]. The specimens of their language which we have collected, contain many words common to the Malay and the Sanscrit [t]; a circumstance which throws additional light on the ancient consanguinity of all these nations. The natives of Borneo call themselves Dayaks or Eidahans. They are fairer than the Malays, of tall stature, and a stout make; and extremely fierce and sanguinary in their character. Their principal people are in the practice of extracting one or more of their front teeth, and inserting pieces of gold in their stead. They paint their bodies with various figures; and a girdle round the middle is their only clothing. Their houses are large boarded huts without partitions; a hundred persons sometimes live together in one. The Biajoos hang the skulls of their enemies at the doors of their huts. A young man is not permitted to marry till he has either cut off the head or some other part of the body of an enemy [u]. In their mutual intercourse they observe strict regulations. Their women are treated with gentleness and consideration. They are dressed in a scarf, and wear an enormous bonnet or parasol of palm leaves on the head. Some of them display a distinguished talent for pantomimic dancing [x].

Badjoos. Tedongs.

One tribe of Eidahans, called Badjoos, lives by fishing. Their villages are built half in the water. The Tedongs, on the north-west coast, seem to be a colony from the Philippine islands, and are formidable for their piracies.

Haraforas.

The Alfors or Haraforas, a race belonging to the interior, seem to differ from the Eidahans only in having browner complexions, and extremely long ears. The

[s] Stuart, a Dutch resident. See the Batavian Memoirs, II. 436.

[t] Meinungen, l. c. No. 238.

[u] "Avant d'avoir coupé soit une tête, soit les parties viriles d'un ennemi."

[x] Meinungen, *loco citat.*

dancing girls of this tribe are much admired by Europeans for the nimbleness of their movements, which, however, border on licentiousness.

Negrillos.

Besides these different races, of which we know so little, there are also some Negrillos, a tribe inhabiting forests inaccessible even to the Eidahans, and of whom no specimens have been hitherto seen by Europeans. These must belong to the Papuan or Oceanic negroes.

Several European nations had attempted to form settlements on the coasts of Borneo, but they had always been expelled or massacred by the natives; and from such particulars as are related to us of their conduct, they seem to have fully merited all their disappointments, being continually disposed to presume so much on their own superiority as to insult the natives indiscriminately. The Dutch, whose first attempts had suffered a similar fate, appeared in force on the coasts in 1748; and their fleet, though insignificant, so far awed the prince of Tatas, the only one who had pepper plantations in his dominions, that he granted them an exclusive privilege of trade; only reserving to himself a right to give 500,000 lbs. of pepper to the Chinese. In consequence of this treaty, the Dutch Company has imported to Banjermassin, rice, opium, salt, and coarse cloths, but can scarcely defray, by this trade, the expenses of their settlement. Their chief profits are derived from the diamonds which they procure, together with 6,000,000 lbs. of pepper. The Chinese take an active part in the trade of Borneo. Diamonds, however, are in no request in China, so that the dexterity of this nation has not been applied to that branch of mining or of trade.

Dutch settlement.

In 1706 the English Company was allowed to build a factory at Banjermassin, but abused their privilege so grossly, by domineering over the inhabitants, levying toll from those who passed up the river, and showing disrespect to the reigning power, that the natives burned the factory, and drove the English from the country. They

English factory.

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were afterwards permitted to trade, on pretending to be private merchants; which they did with much greater success than while their odious self-protected establishment existed [y].

In 1773 that nation formed an establishment in the island of Balambangan, on the northern coast of Borneo, which was destroyed by the natives. It was renewed in 1803, but soon voluntarily abandoned.

[y] Crawford, vol. III. p. 223—229. Beckman's Voyage to Borneo, p. 101.

BOOK LV.

OCEANICA.

PART III.

NORTH-WESTERN OCEANICA CONCLUDED.

The Philippines, Moluccas, and Timorian Chain.

BOOK LV.

Philippine islands.

To the north of Borneo we find the great archipelago of the Philippine islands. They were discovered in 1521 by Magellan, who gave them the name of the archipelago of St. Lazarus. But the Portuguese seem to have known the island of Luzon in the year 1511 [a]. The Spaniards, who established themselves here in 1560, gave the name of their king Philip only to the northern archipelago. The central part often receives the separate appellation of the Bissay islands.

Mountains.

The chains of mountains which traverse these islands in all directions, seem lost in the clouds; none of them have been measured. They are full of volcanoes. That of Mayon, in the island of Luzon, has the figure of a sugar loaf; this at least was the case some years ago. It continually emits smoke, and sometimes flames and volcanic sand. In the neighbourhood of the volcanoes of the islands Mindoro and Sangui, inexhaustible quantities of sulphur are found in large masses.

Volcanoes.

Nature of the country.

The land of the Philippine islands is not only diversi-

[a] See our History & Geography, Book XXI.

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fied by numberless torrents, and many straits, like all mountainous archipelagos, but also present the peculiarity of a great number of marshes, mossy grounds, and lakes. There is little regular firm land. During droughts the miry and spongy soil is full of chinks in all directions. Earthquakes occasion the most dreadful ravages. These islands are sometimes inundated by violent drenching rains, and are frequently exposed to hurricanes. Those which are felt at Manilla are nothing compared to those which occur on the coast of Cagayan in Mindanao.

Seasons and climate.

There is nearly the same variety of seasons here as on the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar, and arising from the same cause. The principal mountain chain runs north and south like the Ghauts [b].

In the western parts the rains prevail during the months of June, July, August, and part of September; the season of the west and north-west winds. The adjoining seas are tempestuous, the lands inundated, and the plains converted into wide lakes. At this time the easterly and northerly parts enjoy fine weather. But in October, and the succeeding months, the north winds, in their turn, sweep the coasts with equal fury, accompanied by an equal abundance of rain; the same inundations take place, so that, when the weather is dry in one district, it is rainy in the other.

Vegetable fertility.

Yet it is to this humidity that the Philippines owe their fertility. During the whole year the meadows, the fields, and the mountains, are clothed with perpetual verdure. The trees are always in leaf: the fields almost constantly enamelled with flowers; blossom and fruit are often exhibited together on the same tree [c]. The principal food in these islands is rice. Wheat was introduced by the Spaniards. The cacao or chocolate bean, which succeeds so admirably, was brought hither about the year 1670,

[b] Voyage dans les mers de l'Inde, par Legentil, t. II. p. 8—12, et p. 334—360.

[c] Legentil, ibid. p. 25, &c.

and is cultivated by the Indians in all the islands. The sugar cane is common. The cinnamon tree grows in Mindanao. The European fruit trees, when planted in the Philippines, bear very little fruit, some of them none at all. The fig trees succeed, and attain to great beauty, but they are very rare. Oranges and citrons abound, and bear excellent fruit. The orange tree grows in the open fields to the height of thirty feet [d]. Among the indigenous plants are the cotton tree, the bamboo, the banana, the mango, the pine apple, ginger, pepper, and cassia. The wild banana, or *Musa textilis*, grows in natural groves, which are considered as property; and from the fibrous bark is manufactured a kind of cloth in frequent use with the natives. It also affords the material of the most valuable cordage obtained from any plant indigenous in north-western Oceanica. It is known to our navigators under the name of "Manilla rope;" and is equally applicable to cables, to standing and to running rigging [e]. The ejoo, obtained from the Aren palm, or *Borassus gomuti*, abounds in the Philippines.

Animals.

These islands contain numerous herds of cattle Hog's lard is used instead of butter, which last is not at all used, the keeping and milking of cows requiring too much attention for the indolent inhabitants. The forests abound in deer.

The numbers and varieties of fish are so great, that those of all the lakes, rivers, and seas in the world appear to be collected here as in a focus. But the rivers are infested with crocodiles. The serpent called the "rice field bear," or *damonpalay*, contains a poison under the teeth, which occasions immediate death [f]. There are swarms of the white ants, which sometimes consume a whole store in one night.

Inhabitants.

According to native traditions, all these islands, and especially Luzon, were once entirely possessed by negroes,

[d] Legentil, p. 45, &c.

[e] Crawford's History of the Indian Archipelago, vol. III. p. 424, 425.

[f] MS. Memoir of Rear-Admiral Richery.

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who, when the other races arrived, fled to the mountains, which are still inhabited by their descendants. The principal tribe is called Ygolots or Ygorrots. The others are called Finguians, Kalingas, and Italones[g]. We are told by a Jesuit, that these tribes are divided into two races, one of which comes nearer to the negroes than the other[h].

The Ygolots.

Manners and laws.

About eighty years ago they came down from the mountains to demand tribute, and did not return till they had murdered some of the other inhabitants, whose heads they carried off to their own haunts. Legentil mentions that an act was passed, by which a certain tribute was allowed them, along with free possession of their fields. More recent accounts say merely that the savages trade with the Spaniards, without taking notice of any tribute. They live on honey, roots, and game. Their clothes are made of the bark of trees. Their huts are sheltered by palm trees, but scarcely afford them protection from the rain. A few knives are their only furniture[i].

The coasts are inhabited by a race not inferior in ferocity of character, though addicted to the pursuits of agriculture and commerce. The leading tribes are the Tagales in the island of Luzon, and the Bissays in the central islands. The different dialects spoken by these nations bear a resemblance to the Malay, and perhaps also to the Chinese. The Tagales believe themselves to be a colony of Malays from Borneo. The practice of tattooing appears to be still continued, and was at one time so frequent, that the Spaniards, from this circumstance, gave some islands of the group the name of the Pintados[k].

Population.

Nothing certain is known regarding the population of these islands. M. de la Perouse supposes it to be 3,000,000, M. Gentil not more than 700,000. Another conjecture is given by M. Raynal, who says, "that only 1,350,000 Indi-

[g] Voyage de Legentil, t. II. p. 51, &c.

[h] Bernardo de la Fuente, cité par Hervas; Catalogo delle Lingu. p. 109.

[i] MS. of M. Richery, p. 289.

[k] Crawford's History, vol. I. p. 218.

ans have submitted to the Spanish yoke; that the greater part are Christians; and that all of them, from the age of sixteen to fifty, pay a capitation tax of four reals, about two shillings Sterling." The natives of the Philippines who are Christians, have, by their more intimate intercourse with Europeans, acquired a share of energy and intelligence superior to their Pagan and Mahometan neighbours, and to all the inhabitants of the more westerly islands of Oceanica, to whom, in former periods, they were indebted for their improvements. In intrepidity they also excel the people of Indostan. Hence, natives of Manilla are almost universally employed as gunners and steersmen in the intercolonial navigation; offices for which the continental Hindoos are at present incapable of being educated[l].

Spanish colony and trade.

The colony is commanded by a governor, subject to the viceroy of Mexico, who remains eight years in office. The trade between the Philippines and Acapulco in Mexico has for ages been conducted by a single galleon of 1200 or 1500 tons. It is a monopoly in which the cargoes are limited to half a million of dollars, (£112,500,) and never amounting, by connivance, to more than a million and a half, (£337,500,) or two millions, (£450,000.) They chiefly consist of the manufactures of China and Indostan, with the produce of the Spice and Sunda islands, for which Manilla is thus merely a place of transit. The ecclesiastical corporations have a large share in the investment. She sails in July or August, the voyage lasts between three and four months, and she returns in about half the time, with a million, or from that to 1,300,000 dollars in silver, some cochineal, cocoa, Spanish wines, oil, wool, and bar iron, but chiefly in ballast. Mr. Crawford, in stating the great losses sustained in this instance by commercial restrictions, mentions, that in a free trade, two annual voyages might be made, while under the present system there is only one[m]. A smaller vessel occasionally sails to Lima by the same route.

[l] Crawford, vol. II. p. 277, 278.

[m] Ibid. vol. III. p. 338—341.

BOOK LV.

Account of the Island of Luzon.

The largest of the Philippines is Luzon, the most northerly island of the group. It is indented by two gulfs, that of Cavite, or Manilla, on the west, and that of Lampon on the east. A great part of the space intervening between these in the interior is occupied by a wide lake called Bay, which discharges its waters into the gulf of Cavite. The largest river is that of Tagayo or Cagayau, which runs due north. The island produces gold, copper, and iron; the working of iron has been abandoned; gold is found in the form of sand or dust. The exports are ship-timber and masts, gomuti cordage, sugar, cotton, rattans, wax, gums, and resins[n].

Manilla and other towns.

The city of Manilla[o] contains 38,000 inhabitants, including 1200 Spaniards. The streets are handsome, though unpaved. The inhabitants lead lives of ease and even of luxury. Every thing participates of the gay and simple spirit of the Indians. The suburbs are inhabited by Chinese and other foreigners. The motions of the sea being gentle, allow the front part of the houses to be built in the water. The transparent mother-of-pearl is sometimes used for windows. At Cavite, the port of Manilla, ships of war are built. Nueva Segovia and Nueva Caceres are episcopal cities.

Mode of living.

The Tagals, erroneously called Indians, live in a state of plenty, tranquillity, and innocence, resembling the golden age. The indolent are enabled, by the munificence of their brethren, to dispense with every kind of labour. It is not uncommon for a man in good circumstances to maintain in his house a numerous train of relations belonging to different branches, who live in good terms with one another, and eat from the same dish. Numerous families, with the addition of strangers, often sleep in the same room, on mats laid along the floor. The benignant character of the Indians extends its influence to the wealthy Spaniards. All the rich houses support two or three *creansas*;

[n] MS. of M. Richery. See also Blanchard sur la Commerce des Indes.

[o] Voyage de La Perouse, t. II. p. 345.

are poor children, who are fed and clothed exactly like those of the family.

The character of the Spanish colonists at Manilla is drawn by some authors in very unfavourable colours. According to Legentil, the baths are conducted without the due regard to decorum, persons of both sexes bathe promiscuously, wearing very thin semi-transparent coverings. Opportunities are taken to make assignations while performing the civil office of lighting a segar for a friend, as the ladies commonly carry a lighted segar in their mouths. It is said to be a common thing for the priests to have acknowledged children. A due submission to the Catholic faith and forms is all the morality required to support a character [p].

Chinese residents.

The Chinese have been at different times attracted to Manilla in great numbers, by its profitable trade. They have been much brow-beat and oppressed by the Spaniards; and in 1603, 25,000 of them were massacred. In 1639, having again increased to the number of 30,000, they were driven to revolt by oppression, and, in the contest, were reduced to 7000. In 1662, the island being threatened by the arms of Coxinga, who conquered Formosa from the Dutch, the whole of the Chinese were ordered away. In 1709 the Chinese were again expelled from Manilla, being ignorantly accused of monopoly, because they watched the state of the market, and exposed or withheld their goods accordingly, and also of carrying off the wealth of the Philippines to China. In 1751 they were again expelled by a royal order, in some measure extorted by popular clamour, but when the public began to suffer from the want of supplies and of trade, the measure was bitterly complained of, and the governor who carried it into effect subjected to public odium.

The Bissay islands.

The accounts which we possess of the other Philippine islands present few characteristic features. In physical character and in the genius of the people, they resemble

[p] Legentil, quoted by Mr. Crawford, vol. I. p. 149, &c.

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Luzon. All those situated between Luzon and Mindanao go under the appellations of the Bissay Islands. Zebu is very populous and productive in rice. Its chief town is Guïgan. It was in the small island of Mactan that the celebrated Magellan lost his life. The island of Buglas or Negros has received this last name from the circumstance of containing a race of negroes in the interior.

Samar.

Samar is one of the leading islands, lying to the south-east of Luzon. It has a fertile and easily cultivated soil, yielding, at least, a return of forty-fold, and exports large quantities of rice. The forests abound in wild birds; they contain three species of the turtle-dove, and many beautiful species of parroquets, some no larger than linnets. The quadrupeds are also very numerous. The woods swarm with monkeys of very large size, wild buffalos, and deer. Numberless hives of wild bees hang from the branches, and alongside of them are the nests of humming birds dangling in the wind.

Panay.

The island of Panay is rich in game, especially in deer, boars, and wild hogs [q]. In this, and the immediately surrounding islets, food and clothing are obtained by the Indians with the utmost ease. A species of banana fig affords a fibrous bark, easily separated by maceration. By joining the fibres together, a cloth of fine texture is obtained, which at first is somewhat stiff, but becomes flexible by being treated with lime. This flax goes under the name of *abaca*.

Mindoro, Palawan, and other islands.

Between the islands of Mindoro and Palawan, is the group called the Calamian islands, or "the Islands of Canes." The chain by which these islands are formed, goes off from Luzon in a south-westerly direction. It seems to be very high and very narrow, the arable land at the bottom of the mountains being of very trifling extent. Their productions are rice, ebony wood, canes, wax, several gums, pearls, fish in endless variety, and turtles. Some

[q] Sonnerat, Voyage aux Indes, t. III. p. 46. 8vo.

of the inhabitants live wholly at sea. The Spaniards have posts at Baco in Mindoro, and some other places. All modern maps give the island of Paragoa the name of Palawan, by which it was known to Marco Polo, but D'Anville places the island of Balaba, (a name which must be identical with Palaba, or Palawa,) to the south-east of Paragoa. In Mr. Crawford's map, Palawan is marked among those which are under native jurisdiction.

General influence of the Spanish ascendancy.

The preceding islands are the only part of the archipelago of which the Spaniards hold the undisputed sovereignty. It is a circumstance worthy of remark, that the Philippines are the only islands of north-western Oceanica which have improved in civilization, wealth, and population, in consequence of their intercourse with Europe. When first visited, the inhabitants were a race of half naked savages, inferior to all the great tribes; but now they are in almost every respect superior. A monopoly of commerce happened to form no part of the Spanish policy. Private industry, though not altogether unshackled, has been allowed some scope, and private competition some operation. The government, finding here no spices, and no rich manufactures, satisfied itself with drawing a fixed capitation tax from its native subjects, which, however oppressive, did not extinguish the spirit of improvement. They also gave full freedom to European colonization, and freely distributed the unappropriated lands among the colonists. The consequence of this was, a free intermixture of the local society, and a communication of the genius and manners of Europe to the native races[1].

Mindanao.

The island of Mindanao, the most southerly of the Philippines, ranks the second for size and consequence. Its name (which is also written Magindanao) signifies in the language of the country, "the united people of the [illegible]." It is properly the name of the capital of the principal state belonging to it. This island is about 330

[1] Crawford's History, vol. II. p. 447, 448.
[2] Forrest's Voyage to New Guinea.

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miles in circumference, but it contains little arable land. Gulfs and peninsulas give an irregularity to the whole coast. Pools and rivulets occur at every step. It has more than twenty navigable rivers, which abound in fish.

Productions.

The chief nutricious plants are rice, potatoes, and sago; cinnamon is also very common. When fresh, it seems equal in aromatic power to that of Ceylon, but soon loses its strength, and in two or three years becomes totally insipid. The vine grows in the trellis way, not admitting of any other mode of culture. It is not certain whether or not this island contains mines[t]. Great quantities of talc are found in it, and millstones are exported by the Spaniards[u]. There are numerous caverns, especially in the neighbourhood of the capital Mindanao, affording a retreat to bats, which are as large as common fowls. About sunset they issue in thousands from these caverns, which protect them from the heat and light during the day. From the earth polluted by their sojourning, a quantity of nitre is extracted[x].

This island is ruled by its own kings and princes, who are styled sultans and rajas. The nobles are called *Latoo*. The marshes and the forests present an insurmountable barrier to the enterprises of the Spaniards. The inhabitants of the interior are black savages, called Haraforas.

The Haraforas.

Some represent them as cruel and bloody in their dispositions; others as a weak, timid, and oppressed race. They are the aboriginal inhabitants. Three tribes are distinguished by their language, the Luta, the Sabani, and the negroes properly so called[y].—The inhabitants of the sea-coast have a great resemblance to the Borneans, the Macassars, and the people of the Moluccas. Dampier found the natives of Mindanao very subject to a cutaneous dis-

Other natives.

[t] Forrest's Voyage to New Guinea. [u] Forrest, ibid.
[x] Forrest, in a Note where he quotes Combes, a Spanish Jesuit.
[y] Hervás, Cat. des Langues, p. 96.

ease, in the form of white flakes and scurf over all the body [z]. They have a language peculiar to themselves, and also speak Malay. Their native idiom seems to be the Bissayan. They are all Mahometans; and have Imâms who teach their children to read and write. In their devotions they use many Arabic words.

The sultan of Mindanao is the most powerful prince in this island, but there are several petty independent sultans. The Mindanayans, when not at war among themselves, follow the occupation of pirates. Their vessels carry small guns, and crews of seventy or eighty men. Navy.

The settlement at Sambuangan is the only one which the Spaniards have kept. It is a town situated in the south-west part of the island, feebly defended by a small fort, and of little use to its possessors. Spanish settlement.

The island of Sooloo, or Suluk, written Xullu by the Spaniards, though small, is one of the most interesting in this part of the world [a]. It lies to the south-west of Mindanao; produces excellent fruits, elephants, and a small species of deer, the *Cervus axis*. Sooloo.

The sea in this neighbourhood throws up a great quantity of ambergris. It is said that before the coming of the Spaniards, the natives made torches with it to give them light while they fished during the night. It is thrown out on the shores of Sooloo, chiefly towards the end of the western monsoons. Some of it has been found in a liquid state. Whatever may be the origin of this substance, it is very curious that it should in this quarter be confined to the small island of Sooloo, and seldom or never found on the coast of Mindanao. Ambergris found here.

Sooloo derives wealth from its pearl fishery, which takes place at the end of the western monsoons. There is at that time a constant calm. The sea is so smooth that the Pearl fishery.

[z] Dampier's Voyages, vol. I. p. 334.

[a] Dalrymple's account of the natural curiosities of the island of Sooloo, in his collection of Voyages, vol. I. p. 21.

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eye can discern objects under water to a depth of forty or fifty feet. The natives of Sooloo are excellent divers, and nothing escapes them that comes within their view. But the Sooloo pearls labour under the disadvantage of tarnishing in a few years.

Navy.

The sultan of Sooloo holds several neighbouring islands, and a part of the coast of Borneo. He keeps a small navy. Bowan, his capital, is situated in the north-west part of the island. It contains 6000 inhabitants, which form a tenth part of the population of the island. In 1628 and 1629 the Spaniards sent two great expeditions for the conquest of Sooloo, but both of them disgracefully failed. In 1637 they made a temporary conquest of Sooloo and Mindanao, which they were soon obliged to abandon. In 1751 they were beaten in their last attempt, and the natives of these islands joining their Mahometan neighbours, invaded the Philippines, and laid waste the Spanish provinces for three years [b].

The Moluccas, or Spice Islands.

The islands situated to the east of Borneo and Java, and to the south of the Philippines, and extending to the immediate neighbourhood of New Guinea, are called by the French geographers the Moluccas, or Spice Islands. The one of these names is by this extension completely alienated from its original and special meaning; the other is somewhat vague. But there are intimate physical relations, and old political ties, which justify us in grouping them as one archipelago. More divided and irregular than the Sunda Islands, they also contain a greater number of volcanoes. Trees, bearing more or less exquisite spices, seem to be diffused over the whole of them. The king of Ternati possesses the whole north coast of Celebes; and the governments of Macassar and Banda share with each other the Timoorian chain. The Dutch of Batavia comprehend all these countries under the general name of *De Groote Oost*, or "the Great East [c]."

[b] Crawford, vol. II. p. 471, 472.

[c] See Valentyn.

The largest of these islands is CELEBES, separated from Borneo on the west by the strait of Macassar, from the Moluccas, properly so called, on the east, by the Molucca passage. That portion of the sea on the north which lies betwixt this island and Mindanao, is sometimes called the Sea of Celebes, sometimes the Mindanao Sea.

Soil and productions

The figure of Celebes is extremely irregular. The bays of Boni, of Tolo, and, most of all, that of Tomini or Gunong-Tellu, divide it into a number of peninsulas connected by narrow *isthmi*. The more our maps have been improved in correctness, the more ragged and skeleton-like does this island appear. It may be compared to a star-fish from which the radiating limbs on that side which lies to the west have been removed; and it is remarkable that the smaller island of Gilolo, adjoining to it on the east, has the very same singular form. The numerous gulfs confer on this island the advantage of a temperature mild for its equatorial situation, the heat being moderated by the copious rains and the cooling winds. The eastern monsoon lasts from May to November; the opposite one prevails through the rest of the year. The tides here are extremely irregular. Celebes contains several volcanoes in a state of activity. The bold, broken, and verdant coasts, present some charming landscapes. Numerous rivers fall in broken cascades at the feet of immense rocks, in the midst of majestic groups of picturesque trees. The most poisonous of known vegetables grow in this island. The famous *upas*, the existence of which in Java has given occasion to so many fables, grows also here; and the Macassars dip their arrows in its juice. Here also grow the clove and nutmeg trees, which the Dutch so avariciously engross, the ebony, the sandal, the calambac, the valuable woods of which are articles of export, the sago tree, the pith of which is used as an aliment by so many nations, the bread-fruit, and other fruit-bearing species. Rice and cotton are abundant. No elephants or tigers are seen in the forests, but many deer, boars, and, according to some accounts, elks or antelopes. There is an infinity of monkeys of a very strong and very

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mischievous kind; and there is a large species of serpent, by which many of them are devoured. The cattle of Celebes are small, and have a hump on the back. The island also produces buffaloes, goats, and sheep, which are remarkably lively and sure-footed, being well accustomed to the mountain roads [d]. Besides the fishes common to the seas of Celebes with others in the same regions, we may remark that large quantities of turtle are taken on the eastern coast, for the sake of the tortoise shell, which is here a valuable article of commerce.

Mines.

The minerals of this island seem deserving of attention. The southern part contains none; but the northern peninsula, from the isthmus to the district of Boolan and beyond it, is full of gold mines. Those of the district of Ankahooloo, near the Dutch settlement of Gorontala, yield gold of twenty-one carats; that found in the others is of eighteen. The ore is found in beds at a depth of some fathoms, and is accompanied with copper [e]. Some of the mountains yield crystal, others iron. In the north-east, the territories of Mongondo and Manado, which are liable to frequent destructive earthquakes, contain a soil which is filled with immense quantities of sulphur [f].

Sulphurous lands.

The topography of Celebes is confounded amidst the contradictory accounts of travellers, who give totally different names to the numerous states into which it is divided.

Different states.

In the south part, on the gulf of Boni, the two leading states are those of Boni and Macassar, or Mankashar. The best known place in the island is Macassar, a fortified town in possession of the Dutch. It is situated in the south-west, on a point of land watered by two rivers. One of these rivers is broad, and allows a vessel to sail up within half cannon shot of the town walls.

Bonthain is also in the south, on the bay to which it

[d] Valentyn, Description de Macassar. Radermacher, idem.

[e] Duhr, in the Batavian Memoirs, III. p. 179—182. Valentyn, Molluques, p. 64, vol. I.

gives its name. It has a Dutch fortress immediately adjoining it. The Bay of Bonthain is large, and affords safe anchorage during both monsoons. The city of Boni is at a short distance from a lake which goes by the classical name of *Tempè*, and gives rise to a fine river. Boni.

The northern provinces under the jurisdiction of the Company, the capital of which is Maros, supply the whole island with rice. They contain 370 large villages, occupying the plains on the west coast [g]. Beyond the Gulf of Kaieli the territory of the king of Ternati begins, comprehending the whole northern and eastern shores, as far as the Gulf of Tomini, and extending a considerable way along the shores of this gulf. This territory, which is able to furnish 17,000 soldiers, is divided among a number of vassal princes. The district which the Dutch call Paloo, a flat and fertile territory, is the Parlow of Captain Woodward [h]. Tolatola, a large town, according to an English traveller, is the Tontoly of the Dutch [i]. Magondo and Boolan are the largest states. Near Manado is Fort Amsterdam. On the Gulf of Tomini the Dutch have the settlement of Gorontalu, in a country which abounds in buffalos, in iron-wood, and in rattans, and where the nights are rendered very chill by the air of the mountains [k]. The Tomitans occupy the central part of the island where the gulfs terminate. Tambooko, and a part of the eastern coast, are possessed by the Badshoos, a savage race, who spend a greater proportion of their time in their fishing-boats than on land.

The inhabitants of Celebes, who are distinguished into Booghiese, or Bugis, and Macassars, are a vigorous and high-minded people. The very meanest of them are as impatient of a blow as any modern European gentleman, and their law allows any individual to revenge such an affront by the death of the person who inflicts it, provided Inhabitants.

[g] Radermacher. Notice on Celebes in the Batavian Memoirs, IV. 215.
[h] Woodward. Radermacher, p. 204. [i] Valentyn, Moluques, p. 72.
[k] Valentyn, Moluques, p. 79.

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he takes this revenge within three days. Among the more scrupulous even a haughty manner will not be tolerated. These principles generate a great deal of habitual politeness of behaviour. In cases of murder the law of retaliation is urged to a greater length than in the other islands. Yet every murder may be compensated to the family of the deceased by a price which is fixed for persons of each condition. When it has been committed by a person of a different tribe, the injury is reckoned a public one, and the death of any individual of that tribe is deemed a sufficient reparation. The practice of running a muck, which is common in all the surrounding islands, is particularly frequent in this island. A person who has suffered a severe affront, especially if his life or honour is in danger, and he is laid under restraint or captivity, if any weapon is within his reach, lays hold of it without the slightest warning; sometimes with a hideous shout, immediately stabs those nearest to him, and, running about with an infuriated look, deals death among friends and foes indiscriminately, till he is himself put to death by some person, who thus performs an important service to society. The officers of police are furnished with three-pronged forks, for the purpose of overpowering persons in this unfortunate and desperate condition. In these islands it is dangerous to be seen running, as none run except persons in a muck, or thieves, and, when any one is seen to run, it is reckoned justifiable to pursue him and put him to death [l].

Running a muck.

Military character and habits.

The inhabitants of Celebes are better and braver soldiers than the other islanders. They have on different occasions made descents on Java, beaten forces more numerous than their own, and laid waste the country [m]. In this island every individual capable of bearing arms must appear in the field if summoned. War is determined in the council of the state; and the assembled chiefs take a solemn oath binding themselves to the prosecution of it. The banner is then unfurled and sprinkled with

[l] See Crawford, vol. I. 67. III. 127.

[m] Crawford, vol. I. p. 231.

blood. Each chief in succession dipping his kreese in a vessel of water, drinks of this liquid, and dances round the bloody banner with wild motions, brandishing violently his bare weapon, and repeating the oath with dreadful imprecations[n]. In war their first onset is furious; but a resistance of two hours is sufficient to exhaust all their impetuosity. Some have inferred that their first efforts are made under the intoxicating influence of opium, which dissipates itself in these frenzied transports, but it is not necessary to have recourse to such a supposition in order to explain the fact, which is analogous to many other instances, varying in character with the physical constitutions and moral habits of different tribes. The kreese is their favourite weapon. They sometimes carry off the heads of their slain enemies as triumphant trophies to their wives and families, and on some occasions go so far as to devour the heart of an enemy. The Dutch governors have on some occasions had the barbarity to encourage their native allies to bring them baskets full of the heads of their enemies[o].

Manners and customs.

The inhabitants of Celebes are rendered active, industrious, and robust, by an austere education. At all hours of the day, the mothers rub their children with oil or with water, and thus assist nature in forming their constitutions. At the age of five or six, the male children of persons of rank are put in charge of a friend, that their courage may not be weakened by the caresses of relations, and habits of reciprocal tenderness. They do not return to their family till they attain the age at which the law declares them fit to marry.

Amusements.

They are very much addicted to games of chance, in which they often stake their whole property, and afterwards their wives, their children, and their personal freedom. The disputes which arise at the gaming table are often terminated by the dagger, or generate incurable family feuds.

[n] Id. vol. III. p. 233. [o] Id. vol I. p. 243.

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The chase.

They are uncommonly fond of the sports of the field; deer and wild bulls being their principal game. Their country differs from most of the other islands in having extensive open grass fields adapted to the chase. These are the property of particular communities, and jealously guarded against the intrusion of strangers. As soon as the rice is sown, they collect for this purpose, mounted on small but active and hardy horses, forming companies of sixty, and sometimes as many as 200, and forget every thing else in the transports of the field.

Women in this island eat out of the same dish with their husbands, though always on the left side, and are in other respects treated on terms of equality. They appear in public without any scandal, mingle with the men at the festivals, take an active concern in all the business of life, are consulted on public affairs, and frequently raised to the throne, even where the monarchy is elective [p].

Religion.

The ancient natives of this island worshipped the sun and moon, and some local deities. They built no temples, deeming the canopy of heaven the only temple corresponding in magnificence to the leading objects of their sacrifices and devotions. The influence of Hindooism existed but in a very limited degree. The Mahometan faith has now been established in the island for two centuries, and its priesthood possesses an extensive influence.

Government.

The governments in Celebes are not despotisms, like those of Java and the other islands; but aristocracies combined with elective monarchy, not unlike the late government of Poland. Boni is a federal state, consisting of eight petty states, each governed by a hereditary absolute chief, and the general government is vested in one of the number elected by the rest. These are his counsellors, without whom he can do nothing. They manage the public treasure, decide on peace and war, and the head of the confederacy corresponds in their name, not in his own. A woman or a minor may be raised either to the

[p] Crawford, vol. I. p. 73, 74.

government of particular states, or to be the head of the general government, and in that case the constitution provides a guardian [q].

All the other governments in the island are formed on similar principles, but with some variety. Among the Goa Macassars, ten electors, besides choosing the sovereign, nominate also an officer who can of his own authority remove the king, and direct the electors to proceed to a new election, or can remove any one of the electors. The Bugis state of Wajo, has a great council of forty princes. It is divided into three chambers, each of which elects two princes, who in their turn elect the chief of the confederacy, called the Matuwa.

The present sovereign of the Bugis state of Lawu, is wife to the king of Sopeng, another Bugis state; but the king does not presume to interfere in the affairs of the state which is subject to his wife. The wife of Kraing Lembang Parang, a respectable Macassar chief, is sovereign of the small state of Lipukasi, and has the reputation of being one of the first politicians of Celebes, exercising great influence even on the armies by her spirited harangues.

The revenue in all the states is raised from the land, and consists of a tenth part of the produce.

Historical epochs.

The historical records of Celebes are more imperfect and limited than even those of Java. They lead us no farther back than 400 years. They seem to have reckoned time by the reigns of their monarchs, like the Chinese. The first positive date is that of the arrival of the Portuguese in 1512. Since this time their annals are filled with details of turbulence and violence. The Goa Macassar kings are put on record under names expressive of such scenes. One is called "throat-cutter;" another, "he who ran a muck;" another, "he who was beheaded;" a fourth, "he who was bludgeoned to death on his own staircase;" and

[q] Crawford, vol. III. p. 11, 12.

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a fifth is distinguished from all his fellows by having "died reigning," that is, a natural death.

The more civilized inhabitants are divided into the two great tribes of Macassars and Bugis, who are subdivided into small nations, that of Goa being the most eminent among the Macassars, and that of Boni among the Bugis. It was not till 100 years after the first visit of the Portuguese that the Mahometan religion was generally adopted, though a few Mahometans were found in the island in 1512. The Macassars, being the first converts, attacked Boni and Wajo, and forced them to embrace the new faith. The Macassars have been generally the most enterprizing race. In 1655 they destroyed the Dutch settlement on the island of Butung. In 1660 the Dutch defeated them, though assisted by the Portuguese. By this exploit they put an end to the trade in cloves and nutmegs which the Portuguese, after being driven from the Moluccas, had carried on through the medium of Celebes. The Maçassars, in 1665, raised a fleet of 700 ships and boats, carrying 20,000 men, which conquered Butung and the Sooloo islands, and was proceeding to the Moluccas, when Admiral Speelman, with a fleet from Batavia, encountered and destroyed it. In 1672 Raja Palaka, who had fled to the Dutch, and by whose instrumentality the Dutch were made masters of the principal part of Celebes, was elected king of Boni, subjected several small states, and thus confirmed the European ascendency. In 1710 the Goa Macassars were reduced to entire subjection by a Dutch expedition. In 1735, and some subsequent years, attempts were made by some bold characters to unite the Macassars for the expulsion of the Dutch. Goa was taken by a chief called Bontolangkas, assisted by the people of Waju, but the Dutch retook it. In 1776 an adventurer, called Sankilang, raised a formidable rebellion in the island, which kept the country in a state of distraction for sixteen years. In 1811 the authority of the Dutch was transferred to the British. The kings of Boni being in possession of the regalia of Macassar, maintained an ascendency in the affairs

of the latter, by which the European authority was undermined. The king of Boni was defeated by the British in 1814, and the regalia delivered into their hands with great ceremony, for the purpose of being restored to the Macassars. They consisted of the following articles:—the book of the laws of Goa—a fragment of a small gold chain—a pair of China dishes—an enchanted stone—a pop-gun—some kreeses and spears—and above all, the revered weapon called the *sudang*, a kind of cleaver, expressly intended, as the natives say, "for ripping open bellies[r]." In 1816, Celebes was restored to the Dutch, along with the rest of their colonies. The Chinese are the only foreigners permitted to trade with this island, to which they import tobacco, gold wire, porcelain, and raw silk. The Dutch import opium, liquors, gum lac, and fine and coarse cloths. Rice, wax in large quantities, slaves, *trepan*, a kind of marine animal substance belonging to the order of *mollusca*, and a little gold, are the exports which this island affords.

Sanghir, Siao, &c.

On the north-east a chain of islands extends between Celebes and the south-east point of Mindanao. The principal one is called Sanghir, which is said to be fertile and populous. It is occupied by a Dutch post. The island Siao, and the Talautzi group, form a chain along with Sanghir. These islands are rich in sago and oil of cocoa, and were said a century ago to contain 28,768 inhabitants. They contain two or three tremendous volcanoes[s].

Butung and Salayer.

On the south coast of Celebes we find the islands of Salayer and Butung. The latter forms a separate kingdom or sultanate. The capital of Butung is a fortified city. The inhabitants manufacture cotton stuffs, and make cloth of the fibre of *agave*. Its extensive forests swarm with parroquets and cuckatoos. A species of nutmeg tree grows here, called by naturalists *Myristica microcarpa*, or *uviformis*, from the fruit being of small size and in clusters like the grape. Much of the ground is overrun with rat-

[r] Crawford, vol. I. p. 62, 63.

[s] Valentyn, Moluques, p. 37—61.

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tans, which climb trees, then trail along the ground, and climb other trees in a long succession. The fruit of the *Bombax ceiba*, or silky cotton, supplies the monkeys with abundance of food[1].

THE MOLUCCA ISLANDS.

The MOLUCCAS, according to the original and proper application of the term, consist of five small islands to the west of Gilolo, viz. Ternati, Tidore, Motir, Makian, and Bakian or Batchian. But the sovereigns of the Moluccas had possessions in Gilolo, Ceram, and other islands in the neighbourhood, and these are called the Great Moluccas. The name seems to be of Arabic derivation, signifying "Royal Islands," because they were the places of residence of the sovereigns of the adjoining islands.

Volcanoes.

The archipelago of the Moluccas bears the most evident marks of a country overturned by one of those physical revolutions which naturalists calls *debacles*; containing islands broken and indented in a singular manner; enormous peaks, projecting abruptly from the surface of the deep rocks, piled up to immense elevations; and a great number of volcanoes, some of which are in a state of activity and others extinguished. The earthquakes, which in these regions are frequent and dreadful, render the navigation dangerous; for not a year passes without the formation of new sand-banks, and the disappearance of old ones.

Climate and plants.

The heat, attended with excessive moisture, followed by long droughts, and the nature of the soil, which is a spongy rock, prevent the cultivation of the *cerealia*. The pith of the sago-tree serves for bread to the natives. The bread-fruit tree, the cocoa, and all the fruit trees of India, succeed in them. The *Pterocarpus draco*, or Lingoa, is a native of these islands, being seldom found in the west. It is used as a substitute for the teak. It is also cultivated for its fragrant blossoms, which are much esteemed. The wood of some of its varieties is so highly perfumed as

[1] Labillardière, Voyage à la Recherche de La Perouse, t. II. p. 305.

to be used as a substitute for sandal. Though less hard and durable than teak, it is handsomer, and therefore fitter for cabinet work. The enormous excrescences which grow on it are wrought into beautiful articles, equalling in lustre the finest variegated marble. In these islands the best gamuti, or ejoo, is found; the fibrous substance obtained from the aren palm. It is less flexible than that of the coir or cocoa-nut husk, but more durable, and therefore better adapted for cables and standing rigging, though less fit for running rigging. The native shipping of all kinds is entirely equipped with it, and for large European vessels it is found to make good cables. It resists, in a remarkable degree, the influence of heat and moisture, and of the changes in these respects to which it is exposed, and therefore needs no tar or pitch. The spice trees, however, are the objects by which the avarice of Europeans has been principally attracted to this part of the world.

Cloves.

The clove tree, (now called by botanists *Eugenia caryophyllata,*) is about forty or fifty feet high, with long pointed leaves like those of the laurel. Some compare its appearance to that of the beech. At the beginning of the wet season in May it throws out a profusion of leaves. Soon after the germs of the fruit are to be seen at the extremities of the shoots, and in four months the cloves are fully formed. The fruit, at first of a green colour, assumes in time a pale yellow, and then a blood red. At this period it is fit to be used as a spice, consequently this is the clove harvest. But to ripen sufficiently for the purposes of propagation, it requires three weeks longer; in which period it swells to an extraordinary size, loses much of its spicy quality, and contains a hard nucleus like the seed of the bay. It is now called "the Mother Clove." There are five varieties of this fruit. It has a more limited geographical distribution than any other useful plant. It was originally confined to the five Molucca islands, and chiefly to Makian. It had been conveyed to Amboyna a very short time before the arrival of the Portuguese. Not partial to large islands, it does not grow well in Gilolo,

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Ceram, Booro, or Celebes. It has been cultivated, and has produced fruit, in the western part of Oceanica. It has also borne fruit, though of inferior quality, for these fifty years in the Mauritius. Even at Amboyna the tree is not productive before the tenth or twelfth year of its growth, and requires great attention; whereas in the parent islands it bears in its seventh or eighth year, and requires very little care or culture. It neither thrives near the sea nor on the high hills. The gathering, the drying, and the packing of it, are all as simple operations as possible; and very little care is required for its preservation as an article of commerce.

The nutmeg.

The other valuable species is the *Myristica moschata*, or nutmeg tree; which, in its general appearance, resembles the clove tree, only it is less pointed at the top, and its branches are more spreading. Its leaves are similar to those of the pear tree, but larger, and, like all those of the nut tribe, dark green on the upper surface and grey beneath. After small white flowers, it produces a fruit very similar, in form and colour, to a nectarine. When ripe it resembles a ripe peach, and, bursting at the furrow, discovers the nutmeg with its reticulated coat, the mace, of a fine crimson colour. The external pulpy covering has an austere astringent taste. Within the mace is the nutmeg, inclosed in a thin shell of a glossy black, and easily broken. It has eight varieties, which appear to be permanent. The limits of its geographical distribution are much wider than those of the clove. It grows in New Holland, in the south of India, and in Cochin-china; but in these countries it is void of flavour; and for all useful purposes its geographical limits are nearly as narrow as those of the clove, and indeed almost exactly the same. The cultivation of the nutmeg is nice and difficult. The best trees are those produced by the seeds voided by a blue pigeon, called the nutmeg bird, by the excrement of which its growth is much facilitated.

In this part of the world there are several minor spicy productions which are found in no other country; viz.

Massoy bark, used for culinary purposes by the Malays and Javanese, and of late in request in China and Japan. The *Laurus culitlawan* also yields an aromatic bark. The leaf of the *Melaleuca leucodendron*, or cajeput tree, is well known to yield a fragrant essential oil.

Animals.

The most remarkable animals in these islands are the barbyrossa, the opossum, the phalanger, the Indian jerboa, and the chevrotain or *Moschus pygmaeus*. There are but few domestic animals. The eye is delighted with the magnificent plumage of some of the birds, such as the bird of paradise, the fishing martin, the different parroquets, cuckatoos, and others. We know little of the minerals of these regions.

European aggressions.

The natives of the Moluccas, before they were visited by foreign nations, attached no value to the vegetable riches which are peculiar to their islands, and which have rendered them at once so celebrated and so unfortunate. The Chinese first accidentally landed in the middle age, and discovered the clove and the nutmeg, in consequence of which a taste for these commodities was diffused over India, and thence extended to Persia and to Europe. The active Arabians, who then engrossed almost all the commerce of the world, turned their attention to the native country of these precious commodities, and repaired to it in numbers; when the Portuguese, who always followed close behind, wrested the treasures from that nation. In 1521, Antonio de Brito first appeared in force in the Moluccas, for the express purpose of taking possession of them in the name of the king of Portugal. The unsuspecting sovereigns received their treacherous guests with caresses, but soon found cause to entertain very different sentiments towards them. One of the first acts of the commander was to imprison some of the followers of Magellan, who had been left in this part of the world, because they belonged to the hostile nation of Spain. A system of violence, intrigue, and perfidy towards the natives was immediately begun and continued for sixty years, with the single exception of the two years of the government of

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the virtuous Galvan. At the end of that period the Dutch, with the assistance of the natives, drove out the Portuguese; but they soon discovered a rapacious policy equally oppressive. In 1606 the king of Ternati attempted to league the different princes for their expulsion, but the jealousies of his neighbours defeated his intentions. In 1613 the intrigues of the Dutch procured for them, from the native princes, an exclusive right of buying cloves. Every infraction of these iniquitous compacts was resented; and from this cause the country was now desolated for seventy years with wars and invasions. The natives displayed much bravery, but were finally subdued. The Portuguese and English sometimes interfered, and their policy wavered according to the prospects which events at different times held out to their base avarice. The English were allowed at one time to have a mercantile establishment at Amboyna, when held by the Dutch. But the latter, in the year 1623, after forcing some Chinese and Javanese soldiers, by the torture, to make confession of a plot on the part of the English, seized on the whole of the English residents, and put them to death with circumstances of indignity and cruelty sufficient to disgrace any barbarians. In this unfortunate island Governor Vlaming, one of the most detestable monsters that even colonial depravity can boast of, carried on a scene of bloody executions, putting to death people, nobles, and priests, by dozens, in all the different forms of cruel death; strangling, breaking on the wheel, drowning in the sea, and beating to death with bludgeons. Those who were taken prisoners, and those who surrendered under promise of pardon, shared the same fate [u]. It was not till 1680 that the Dutch, by completely crushing the natives, carried the principles of their commercial policy into rigid practice.

Massacre of Amboyna.

While the culture of cinnamon was confined to Ceylon, that of the clove was confined to Amboyna, and that of the nutmeg to the Banda islands. It was not till 1778,

[u] Crawford's History, vol. II. p. 440, 441.

when the plantations at Banda were greatly damaged by an earthquake, that the Company allowed the nutmeg, as well as the clove, to be cultivated in Amboyna.

Effects of the monopoly of spice

In consequence of this monopoly of cloves and nutmegs, the quantity produced is greatly diminished, and the price enhanced. The particulars of this department of mercantile history are given in detail in the enlightened work of Mr. Crawford, and the inferences are luminously drawn, pointing out the ruinous tendency of all those cruel and unjust measures. The price given for cloves to the cultivator is 3¼d. per lb. avoirdupois, nearly eight dollars per picul of 133⅓ lbs. When the trade was conducted by the natives, it even sold in Java at an average of fourteen dollars per picul. When the article arrived by a difficult and hazardous land-carriage to the Caspian Sea, it cost 91 dollars; at Aleppo 141; and in England 237. Since the close monopoly of the Dutch, *i. e.* since 1623, the price paid for cloves to the Dutch on the spot has been eight times the price paid by them to the cultivator. When brought directly to England, they are sold at an advance of 1258 per cent. on the natural export price. Concerning the quantities produced, our information is not exact. During the Portuguese and Spanish supremacy, the five Moluccas produced annually 2,376,000 lbs. When the trade was free, the quantity was one half more. The whole produce at present does not exceed 700,000 lbs. Before the last time that the islands fell into the hands of the English, Europe consumed annually 553,000 lbs; since that time about 365,000. The duty imposed in England was then more than twenty fold the price of the commodity where it grows. The price indeed fell, but not in proportion to that of pepper, and other analogous articles. The quantity now consumed in England exceeds that consumed in 1615 by 56 per. cent.; but, if the trade had been free, it ought in the present state of wealth and luxury to have increased in the proportion of 147 per cent. that being the case with pepper[x]. The Dutch monopoly has occasioned

[x] Crawford, vol. III. p. 393.

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a cultivation of cloves in Bourbon and Cayenne, which would immediately cease if the Molucca trade were laid open, the produce being so much inferior.

The same principles operate on the trade in nutmegs. In the ancient commerce, down to the establishment of the monopoly, nutmegs were always sold and transported in the shell, and the natives, when left to themselves, are still disposed to continue that practice. The Dutch, to secure their monopoly more effectually, subject them to processes which destroy the powers of germination, consisting in slow kiln-drying and smoking for three months, and immersion in quick-lime and salt water, with drying, which require two months longer. This process is attended, not only with loss of time and labour, but with great waste, and other inconveniences. The kernel is exposed by it to the depredations of the nutmeg fly. It is estimated that a tenth part of the produce perishes in consequence of the separation of the shell. The English, when they conquered the Spice Islands in 1810, found in store more than 37,000 lbs. of bad, broken, and rotten nutmegs. The natural price of the article ought not to exceed four dollars per picul, or 2½d. per pound, and in Europe the pound should not exceed 6d. but it is in general twelve times that price; and in England, duties included, seventeen times as much. Mr. Crawford, while he details these, among other important circumstances, observes, that "the consumer pays this price for no other purpose than that a political juggle may be played, by which the party who plays it imposes on itself, without gaining any advantage whatever, while the grower is cheated out of his property and out of his liberty." The consumption of nutmegs, as well as cloves, in Europe, is smaller at the present day than in the middle ages. Black pepper and ginger have in a great measure taken their place, and, above all, the pimento and Chili commodities, unknown to Europe before the discovery of America, and of the route by the Cape of Good Hope. The following is the state of the nutmeg trade at different periods:

	lbs.
Consumption of nutmegs in all Europe in 1615,	400,000
Do. of mace in do.	150,000
Consumption of nutmegs in England in 1615,	100,000
Do. of mace	15,000
When the monopoly first fell into the hands of the English in 1796, the consumption of nutmegs in Europe was	85,960
And of mace,	24,234
Consumption of nutmegs in England,	39,071
Of mace,	5,400
When the monopoly was last in the hands of the English, in 1811, the consumption of nutmegs in Europe was	214,720
Of mace,	250,040
Consumption of nutmegs in England,	56,960
Of mace,	3,620

Description of the island of Gilolo.

We shall now give a description of the individual islands of this archipelago. Gilolo has an irregular form, representing Celebes in miniature, the irregularities and incursions of the ocean lying on the eastern side of both. Its interior contains some lofty peaks. It abounds in buffaloes, goats, deer, and boars, but contains very few sheep. Many bread-fruit trees grow in it, also the sago tree, and probably some clove and nutmeg trees, notwithstanding the assiduity with which the Dutch exert themselves to extirpate these species. One of the principal towns is Satanag, which is situated on a small promontory on the east side, and is only accessible by means of steps. The sultan of Ternati seems to hold the sovereignty of the north part of this island, while the southern part belongs to the sultan of Tidore.

Island of Mortay.

The north end of Gilolo is separated by a narrow channel from the beautiful island of Mortay, which has few inhabitants, though covered with sago trees, which are cut down by the people of Gilolo.

Ternati.

The Moluccas Proper form a chain situated on the west side of Gilolo in a line parallel to the direction of its coast. The most northerly, and the principal of these islands, is Ternati, though not thirty miles in circumference. Its sultan reigns over Makian and Motir, the north part of Gilolo, Mortay, some parts of Celebes, and a part of Papua

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or New Guinea, from which he draws a revenue of gold, amber, and birds of paradise. He can command an army of 80,000 men. The government is a mixture of three forms. The nobles and the commons are represented by magistrates invested with great power; but the Mussulman clergy, having obtained seats in the senate, have rendered its sittings tumultuous and anarchical [y].

Ternati consists chiefly of elevated grounds abounding in springs: the tops of the mountains are lost in the clouds. It contains a volcano, which had a violent eruption in 1693. Its birds are remarkable for their uncommon beauty, especially the martin fisher, a bird of a red colour mixed with sky-blue, and called by the natives "the goddess."

Tidore.

The island of Tidore resembles the preceding, but is somewhat larger. Its sultan is not so powerful as the other, possessing only the south of Gilolo, Mixoal, and some inferior islands.

Motur, Makian, and Batchian.

Motur, according to an ancient writer, was formerly the asylum of Venus and of pleasure. The island of Makian contains a volcano, the crater of which has the form of a long crevice, reaching to the foot of the mountain. Batchian is the largest of the original Moluccas. It is governed by a sultan, who also possesses Oby, Ceram, and Goram; but he is more dependent on the Dutch than the other two princes. The coasts, like those of most of the islands of this archipelago, are surrounded by coral rocks of great beauty and infinite variety.

Oby, and Mixoal.

Between Gilolo and Ceram we find the island of Oby, which originally abounded in clove trees. The Dutch keep a small fort on its west side. Its inhabitants consist in a great measure of slaves who have escaped from Ternati.

In Mixoal, or Mysoal, which lies near the great Papua country, the villages are built on posts in the water. Its woods contain beautiful birds of paradise, which seem to come from New Guinea.

[y] Valentyn, Moluques, p. 98.

The three Zula islands named Taliabo, Mangola, and Bessi, form a group lying between the Moluccas and Celebes. Abounding in sago and ebony wood, they contain a population which has the character of being exceedingly treacherous and indolent. On the shore of one of the channels which separate them, there is a rock resembling the human form, which is an object of adoration to the Malay seamen [z]. Zula islands.

The island of Booro rises abruptly from a very deep sea, and has the appearance of being surrounded by a wall. It is seen at a distance of seventy-six miles. In the interior the Alfoors, a race of gentle and timid savages, live on the banks of a circular lake, which appears to rise and fall like that of Cirknitz. An islet sometimes appears and disappears again in the middle of the lake [a]. The atmosphere in the interior is exceedingly humid. The trees are overrun with moss, and seats like little altars, covered with that substance, surround the fountains. This island contains buffaloes, deer, and barbyrossas. Among the trees are a green-coloured ebony, a kind of iron-wood, and teak [b]. In these solitary places, probably the clove, and perhaps the nutmeg also, defy the avarice of mankind. The town of Cayeli, called also Booro, is handsomely built, on a bay which affords good anchorage. Island of Booro.

The island of Ceram is 186 miles long, and thirty-six or thirty-eight broad. Forrest tells us expressly that Ceram still produces cloves. It has large forests of sago, an article which constitutes a considerable object of export. This is the humblest of the palm tribe, except the *nipa*, and the thickest except the gomuti. While under a height of five or six feet, it is covered and protected by sharp spines, which afterwards drop off. Before it reaches its full growth, the stem consists of a thin hard case, about Description of Ceram. Account of the sago palm.

[z] Valentyn, Moluques, vol. I. p. 88.

[a] Leipzig and Keller's Journey to the Lake of Booro, in Valentyn, Amboyna, vol. II. chap. II. p. 16—27.

[b] Labillardière, vol. II. p. 295.

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two inches thick, and an enormous volume of spongy pith, like that of the elder. This is the edible farinaceous substance, the bread of the islanders. When the tree attains maturity, this mealy pith disappears, and the stem is reduced to an empty shell. It grows in low marshy situations, and thrives best in knee-deep bogs. This part of the archipelago, where the eastern monsoon is boisterous and rainy, is its true native country. It is most abundant in those islands which are most distinguished for the production of the clove and the nutmeg, and its geographical distribution seems nearly co-extensive with that of these spices. Ceram is most of all distinguished for it. The tree is generally ready to be cut down for sago when about fifteen years old. After being cut down, it is divided into convenient lengths, split, and scooped out; the pith is separated from the fibrous matter by means of water, in which it falls to the bottom. To make it keep well, it is formed into dense cakes, by means of heated moulds. In this form, the largest quantities are consumed and exported. The finest of the meal is made into a paste with water, which is then rubbed down into small grains. When constantly used for food, it is found both by the natives and others inferior to the farina of the *cerealia*. The hard woody shell of the trunk is used for building houses and bridges, and making troughs and other vessels. The stem of its branches is more extensively used in carpentry. The refuse of the pith is given to the hogs. When thrown into heaps it putrefies, and a delicate edible mushroom grows on the heaps. In this putrefaction a white worm is also generated, which the natives consider as delicate eating, and some Europeans have also learned to relish [c]. One tree will sometimes yield 500 or 600 lbs. avoirdupois of sago. The average is supposed to be 300 lbs. If each tree is ten feet asunder, which the cultivated palms generally are, an acre, when cut down, will yield 120,500 lbs. or 8000 lbs. a-year [d].

[c] The ancient Romans reckoned some wood worms dainties.

[d] See Crawford's History, vol. I. p. 386—390.

This island has been little visited even by the Dutch, whose dominion over it is not complete. Valentyn represents in twelve plates the enchanting aspect of several parts of the coast, particularly Lissa-Bata on the north coast, at the foot of a mountain, rugged with awful ravines. In the west end there is a peninsula called Howamchel by the Dutch, and Veranola by the Portuguese, which contains two beautiful places, called Lochoc and Cambello [e]. The north coast is covered with the *casuarina* tree. The trees, hung over ravines resembling a profound abyss, where torrents are roaring beneath, meet to form bridges, without which the inhabitants of different districts could not keep up any mutual intercourse. In other places the villages are situated on terraces, which are ascended by long stairs. Among the rocks is found a bituminous stone or coal, capable of keeping up the strongest furnace heat. There are also large hills of chalk, down which rivulets pour, which are impregnated with that substance [f].

Mountains.

The island of Ceram is traversed from east to west by several parallel chains of mountains, one of which seems to be more than 8000 feet above the level of the sea. The deep forests abound with birds, among which is found the cassowary.

Of the inhabitants of Ceram, the aborigines, called Alfoors, are the most deserving of notice. The only dress of the men is a girdle encircling the loins. They fix bunches of flowers and palm leaves to the head, shoulders, and knees, and wear square bucklers, which they ornament with considerable taste. The young men court the favour of their mistresses by presenting them with five or six of the heads of their enemies. In order to seize their victims by surprise, they lie in ambush in the woods, cover themselves with moss, and hold branches of trees in their hands, which they shake in a manner so natural that they have the appearance of real trees, allow the enemy to pass, as-

Alfoors, or aboriginal inhabitants.

[e] Valentyn's Map of the Government of Amboyna.

[f] Valentyn's Description of Amboyna, ch. II. p. 35—70.

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sassinate him by coming up behind him, and cut off his head, which they carry off, flying with great rapidity[s]. They are received by the people of their village with all the honours of a barbarous triumph. The eyesight of these people is uncommonly acute, and their swiftness is such as to enable them to chase the wild hog with success. Rats and serpents form part of their food. They never marry more than one wife, and are strangers to the disorders of debauchery. The nation is governed by three princes, and occupies the whole interior of the island. A king of these Alfoors gave a very singular entertainment to a Dutch preacher, of the name of M. Montanus. After receiving him with great demonstrations of joy, and treating him with the most splendid repast that the resources of the country could afford, the prince ordered a number of men armed with swords to step forward. They performed a war dance; and, after a few feats of this sort, commenced a serious fight; their swords clashed, blood flowed, and some of their bodies were laid dead on the ground. The peaceful minister of religion, shocked at the horrid spectacle, entreated the king to put a stop to it. "It is nothing," was the reply, "they are my slaves: it is only the death of a few dogs. Happy shall I be if this mark of my high respect convinces you of my eager desire to please you." This was equal in barbarity to the ancient Roman amusement of gladiators.

A singular entertainment.

Island of Amboyna.

The small but important island of Amboyna, on the south of Ceram, claims our particular attention. It is fifty-five miles long. A large bay divides it into two peninsulas, giving it a shape not unlike that of a blunt pair of compasses or forceps, or the bill of a bird half opened. When lately taken by the English, it was found to contain 45,252 inhabitants, of whom 17,813 were Protestant Christians, and the rest Mahometans, excepting a small number of Chinese and savages. It is occupied by mountains of moderate height, principally in the east end, where the two peninsu-

[s] Valentyn, Description d'Amboine, ch. III.

las meet. Its fields are watered by several streams, enlivened by numerous hamlets, and embellished by valuable crops. The soil of the plains is composed of a reddish clay, sometimes black and sandy, particularly in the narrow valleys. Several of the rocks are composed of a brittle slate, accompanied with very hard asbestos. A beautiful fine-grained granite forms the basis of several of the hills. At an elevation of nearly 1000 feet, are found calcareous stones of a pure white [h].

Plants and flowers.

The celebrated Rumphius has given a flora of this island, to which Labillardière has subjoined some new remarks. The clove is always the principal plant cultivated in it. There is a small quantity of coffee, and which is not of the best quality. The greater part of the marshy grounds are employed in the cultivation of the sago tree, from which are obtained sago, wine, sugar, and cordage. Among the best fruits may be mentioned several sorts of *litchi*, such as the rambootan of the Malays, (the *Nephelium lappaceum*,) several species of *banana*, oranges, guavas, papaw trees, the beautiful *Laurus culilaban*—the ornament of the shores—a tree which yields by distillation an aromatic oil which is in great request [i]. The tallest tree of the forests is the *Canarium commune*. The *Eleocarpus monogynus*, though overtopped and shadowed by the surrounding trees, is covered with elegantly formed flowers down to its lowest branches. In the solitary forests, the close foliage of which scarcely allows the light of the sun to penetrate, we observe a wonderful vivacity of colours in some parasitical plants, formerly referred to the natural order of *Orchideæ*, and now arranged by botanists as a separate order, under the name of *Epidendra*, because they adhere to the trunks of large trees. In places less crowded with exuberant species, we find the *Cussonia thyrsiflora* arising to adorn these enchanting scenes with its broad palmate leaves. Among the most common trees or shrubs we may take notice of the hennè, which is applied to the same uses in Egypt, Tur-

[h] Labillardière, t. II. 309—311, &c.

[i] Ibid. II. p. 325.

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key, Arabia, and all the east, that of staining the fingers of the women; the *Chalcas peniculata*, champac, several of the *Uvariæ* and Arabian jessamines, which, rising up among those delightful trees, mingle their gentle odour with the other delicious perfumes[k]. In the marshy grounds, and along the banks of the rivers, we find such aquatics as the *Jussiæa tenella*, the mangroves, and the *Acanthus dioscoridis*. From the bastard aloe the inhabitants procure a flax subservient to domestic uses. Several gardens are adorned with the Chinese boxwood, formed into beautiful rows along the walks. *Justiciæ* and variegated turnsoles here display all the beauty of their flowers and their foliage. On the sides of steep sandstone rocks, towering above the waters of the ocean, grows the *Pandanus odoratissimus*, suspending over the sea its large globular fruit, which, when arrived at maturity, falls down and lies thick strewed on the surface. To heighten still more the beauty of these delightful places, we see the brilliant red flowers of the *Erythrina corallodendrum*[l]. The sea is peopled with brilliant shell-fish and other singular species, and its shores are covered with crabs and lobsters without number.

Town.

The city of Amboyna, the capital of the island, is situated at the south-west extremity. Its regular streets, its canals, and its bridges, give it very much of a Dutch aspect. The citadel is a place of great strength, and, next to that of Batavia, the most important in this part of the world.

Manners of the natives.

The natives, who are descended from the same stock with the Malays and Javanese, have adopted the practice of wearing tight vests and breeches. They are fond of the bath, and rub their bodies with odoriferous oils. The women load themselves with golden bracelets, of an endless diversity of forms, and adorned with crystals. In personal charms, in elegance of manners, heightened by the lustre of their flowing dress, and even almost in complexion,

[k] Labillardière, t. II. p. 292.

[l] Idem, t. II. p. 332.

they make some approach to our ideas of the ancient Greeks. Their dances are enlivened with songs, which are frequently descriptive of the historical events of their country. These songs often take the form of dialogues, like the *ambœbeon* of the ancients. An Amboynese, called Ridjali, has written in the Malay language the history of one of the districts of the island. But several of its ancient customs have been abolished by the strict notions of the Dutch ministers [m].

Among the islands adjoining Ceram and Amboyna we must notice the following: Noossa Laoot, the inhabitants of which, in 1707, were still cannibals, and valued the human cheeks and palms of the hands as the most delicious morsels [n]; Honimoa, a fertile island, containing a Dutch fort; and Oma, which abounds with thermal springs. These three islands are to the east of Amboyna. To the east of Ceram we have Manipa, Kelang, and Bonoa, which are covered with cocoa and ebony trees, and rice fields. Bonoa is properly a circular group of islands, forming a good harbour in the centre. In Manipa there is a fountain called Ayer Sampoo, "the well of oaths," which is believed to give the itch to any perjured person who drinks of it.

Neighbouring islands.

Fountain of oaths.

To the south-east of the island of Amboyna, is a small and distinct volcanic group, taking the name of Banda from the leading island, which is also called Lantor. The nutmeg tree is cultivated chiefly in Nera, Gonong, Ay or Way, and Lantor or Lontor. This celebrated species, which delights in a black mould, grows also amidst the lavas of Gonong, the highest of all the islands, its summit being 1940 feet above the sea.

Banda islands.

On the island of Poolo Ay, the stones of mysterious origin, called aërolites, or atmospheric stones, because they are believed to proceed from the atmosphere, frequently make their appearance. The frequency of their occurrence in

[m] Valentyn, Amboyna, p. 152, 124, 164, &c.

[n] Ibid p. 152, 164, &c.

BOOK IV. the Moluccas may seem to countenance the opinion which assigns to these bodies a volcanic origin.

On the east of Banda there is a chain of islets, extending from the east point of Ceram to a group of three larger islands, to which the Dutch give the name of "The Keys." These are near the eastern termination of an important chain of large islands, which, from Timor, we have called "the Great Timorian Chain." Taken in an enlarged view, this chain begins with Sumatra, and includes Java as well as all those islands, large and small, which lie between Java and Arroo, forming along with them one magnificent sweep; but, as Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, derive importance and peculiar features from their size and their central situation in the communication between the Indian and Chinese seas, we have already considered them under the appellation of the Sunda islands. We now, in an order from east to west, take a view of the numerous islands forming the eastern part of this extended line. In geological structure they belong to that description of country which is called by geologists the secondary formation, being distinguished by the horizontal, or nearly horizontal, position of its strata, while Borneo and others to the north consist partly of primitive rocks, one leading character of which consists in a comparatively upright position of their strata. This distinction is accompanied with another important difference, that, while the primary strata contain tin and gold mines, these are wanting in the Timorian chain.

The Great Timorian Chain.

The most easterly islands of this chain are the Arroos, which are very populous and very fertile. Their surface is low and covered with woods. They abound in all the fruits of the Moluccas. They contain poultry without number, the bird of paradise, and the beautiful lori. Among their quadrupeds we find the kangaroo, which is there called the pilandoc[o].

The Arroo islands.

To the west of these are the Keys already mentioned,

The Keys.

[o] Valentyn, p. 42.

fertile in cocoa, lemon, and orange trees, and pisangs, and containing a nation whose complexion and hair declare them to belong to the Malay race. Here each village has its chief, its temple, and its idol. The inhabitants sometimes dispute and war about their different rights of fishing. They immerse the bodies of the dead in oil, dry them before a fire, and keep them for some months before interment, a custom which reminds us of the islanders of Otaheite. Weak and badly armed, these people have always behaved with mildness and hospitality to Europeans. They carry on some trade with the Banda islands. Goats and pigs are their only quadrupeds [p].

Timor-Laot, &c.

To the south-west of the Keys is the beautiful island of Timor-Laot, which, with that of Laarat, forms a large bay; also Baber, where the Dutch have a military station; Duma, where there are harbours and a volcano, but so unhealthy a climate that the Dutch were obliged to desert it; Moa and Lati, which supply the Banda islands with excellent sheep.

Island of Timor.

The large island of Timor is better known. Its limestone mountains, composed of sea-shells at elevations of 800 feet, are covered with all sorts of trees and shrubs. At every turn of bay or promontory we are presented with some new prospect of a picturesque and romantic character [q]. The enthusiasm of navigators, who visited it immediately after leaving the tiresome shores of New Holland, has created some exaggeration in their descriptions of the fertility of this island. Yet it contains beautiful *eucalypti* [r], and a species of pine which might be well adapted for masts [s]. The coffee tree has succeeded in it; cinnamon, perhaps also cloves, grow in the interior. The stony nature of the soil, and the irregularity of its surface from

Productions.

[p] Dutch Report of 1624, quoted by Valentyn, in his Account of Banda, p. 40.

[q] Peron, Voyage aux Terres Australes, ch. 8.

[r] Leschenault de Latour. Annales des Voyages, t. XVI. p. 280.

[s] M. de Rosily, in a MS. Memoir read to the Societé d'Emulation of the Isle of France.

BOOK LV.

mountains and ravines, leave little space adapted to the cultivation of rice; and, were it not for its bananas, its cocoas, its jack trees, *eugenias*, and other fruit-bearing species, Timor could not maintain its scanty population. Its only exports are sandal wood, the salangan swallow's nests, and bees wax [t]. The bee is not domesticated here, nor, indeed, in any part of these islands or of Asia. The honey of this insect, in these equatorial regions, is inferior in flavour to that of higher latitudes; and, as the plants are in flower during the whole year, the quantities which they lay up are comparatively small, so that the honey of Arabia is imported to the Indian islands as a luxury. But the vegetation supports an infinity of wild bees, affording an abundant supply of wax, which is largely exported to Bengal and China. The largest supply is obtained from Timor and Floris [u].

Climate.

The water of the rivers is said to be deficient in salubrity. The hot and dry season, which reigns from May to November, is succeeded by torrents of rain, accompanied by a violent north-west wind, lasting from November to March.

Diseases.

The European visitor is liable to fevers of a fatal character, from the slightest irregularity in exposure to the air, the use of water, of baths, or of fruits. The inhabitants are very subject to cutaneous diseases, and to scurvy. Another disadvantage of this island, so highly praised by M. Peron, is the want of a safe and convenient harbour. Its Dutch masters have, in the south-west end,

Towns, roadsteads, &c.

Fort Concordia, near an anchoring ground called Coopang, from a town of that name, very pleasantly situated in the midst of delightful orchards; which, with scarcely any culture, produce, all the year round, abundance of the most exquisite fruits, and exhale delicious odours. The mixed European race, the Dutch colonists, and Malays of this island, pass their time in voluptuous inactivity, de-

[t] Hogendorp's Account of Timor, translated from the Dutch. Annales des Voyages, t. VI. p. 281.

[u] Crawford's Hist. of the Indian Archipelago, vol. III. p. 438.

volving the cares and labours of life on their slaves[x]. The north-east side is subject to the Portuguese, who, after abandoning the Fort of Lifao, have now a fort at Didil, a place where there is an anchorage. The canton of Uikoessi, on the north coast, is possessed by a Portuguese colony, mixed with aboriginal natives[y]. The native chiefs of the whole of the south coast are independent, and reign over tribes of negroes similar to those who live in the interior of Borneo, and the other neighbouring islands. Despotism, superstition, and voluptuousness, have generated in the Timorians the same character which prevails among the other islanders of these regions. Some of the rajas call themselves the descendants of caïmans, or crocodiles, and seem to be every way worthy of that illustrious descent. It has been supposed that not less than forty languages are spoken among the rude and scattered population of this island[z]. This is a characteristic by which the Oceanian negroes are distinguished from the Malay or olive race. The former, never enjoying the advantages of union or extensive mutual communication, have possessed insulated languages and manners, while the latter exhibit, in these particulars, proofs of the ancient unity of their nation.

Character of the people.

The island of Samao, on the south-west of Timor, rather barren, though covered with trees, affords a shelter to vessels driven from the anchorage of Coopang, during the north-west monsoon. The island of Kambing exhibits a curiosity in physical geography, in the bubbling up of sulphurous waters, like those in some parts of Italy[a]. The island of Rotti, beyond Samao, is both larger and more fertile, and supplies the Dutch with rice and *jaggari*, or palm sugar. Cook says that the sugar cane grows here.

Neighbouring islands.

[x] Leschenault de Latour, Description de Coupang, Annales des Voyages, t. XVI. p. 287.

[y] Hogendorp, loc. cit. p. 279.

[z] Crawford's Hist. of the Indian Archipelago, vol. II. p. 79.

[a] Hogendorp, loc. cit. p. 312.

BOOK LV.

The inhabitants, better made, and stronger than the Timorians, refuse both the government and the religion of Europeans; they are said to lead licentious lives, and to indulge in the most depraved inclinations. The inhabitants of the little island of Dao are all goldsmiths.

The Savoo islands.

Savoo is the name of two small islands to the west of the preceding. They are very populous, yet export a large quantity of rice. Their astonishing fertility makes them productive under the most protracted droughts. The men pluck out their beards, and, in the figures with which their bodies are marked, preserve some traces of tattooing [b].

Sandal-wood island.

The large island called, from its produce, "Sandal-wood island," in Dutch, Sandal Bosche, has, in the Malay language, the name of Poolo Tchinnana, which has the same import [c]. But that valuable article is exported from it only in small quantity; some suppose that the natives are unwilling to cut down the trees, believing that they are the present abodes of the souls of their ancestors [d]. Cotton, buffaloes, horses, poultry, and pheasants, abound in this island, which is very steep on the south side. At present it is nearly independent of foreign influence. According to some late authors, the true name of the island is Sumba.

The chain of islands to the west of Timor is double. We have followed the southern links, and are now to take a survey of the northern, which are, in general, larger and closer together. Leaving the north side of Timor, we count four islands in a westerly direction, called Omba, Pontar, Lombet, and Sabrao; but we know little more about them than their names. The last of them, Sabrao, is high, picturesque, and full of villages [e]. Solor island is much better known. The Dutch, who have a fort in it

Solor island.

[b] Cook's First Voyage, book III. ch. 9.

[c] Valentyn's Map of the Islands of Timor, &c.

[d] Hogendorp's Account of Timor, loc. cit. p. 322.

[e] Valentyn, Banda, p. 120.

called Frederic-Henry, think well of the courage of the Solorians as seamen, and keep a number of them in their employment. The whale fishery furnishes these islanders with oil and ambergris; articles which, together with bees wax, form their principal exports [f].

Island of Floris.

The island of Floris, or of Ende, is nearly as large as Timor; but, as the only European establishment on it, that of Larantooka, belongs to the Portuguese, our knowledge of it is but slender. It is subject to earthquakes. The Macassars come to it for slaves, oil of cocoa, tortoise-shell, wood, and wild cinnamon, though this last is prohibited by the Dutch [g]. In this island, as in Timor, there is a great multiplicity of local languages.

Island of Sumbawa, or Bima.

The large island situated to the west of Floris, and separated from it by the strait of Sapy, takes indifferently the name of Bima, or Sumbawa. These are properly the names of two different kingdoms, into which it is divided, one at the east, and the other at the west end. The Portuguese call it Combava. All the princes of the island, six in number, have in one confederate body concluded a treaty with the Dutch Company, by which the latter has the exclusive right of trade; but the treaty is not rigorously enforced. The exports are rice, *cadjang*, or ground pistachio nuts, sapan wood [h], wax, and horses [i].

Remarks on languages.

Mr. Crawford remarks that, though the size of this island is considerable, there are only five languages in it. As we proceed westward civilization is more advanced, and the languages fewer in number. In the civilized portion of Celebes, there are not more than four; six in Sumatra; and only two in Java [k]. Sumbawa is a pretty large town.

Lombok.

The kingdom of this name formerly included the island of Lombok, now connected with Bali. Its true name is Salanparang It is rich in sapan wood.

[f] Hogendorp, loc. cit. p. 320. [g] Radermacher, Descript. de Celebes, p. 232.
[h] Radermacher, Celebes, p. 253—256.
[i] Valentyn, Macassar, p. 141. (vol. IV.)
[k] Crawford's, Hist. of the Indian archipelago, vol. II. p. 80.

BOOK LV.

We have now made the interesting tour of the Moluccas, or Spice islands, in the largest acceptation of the term, returning to the island of Bali, which was described under the head of the Sunda islands, being a dependence of Java. We have some remarks to make on the Molucca sea. Like all those parts of the ocean which are under and near the equator, it is full of zoophytes, contains many coral reefs, and is subject to permanent periodic winds. It resembles the neighbouring seas in containing a great number of volcanoes, which occasionally produce changes in the form of its bed. One phenomenon peculiar to this sea, is the periodical appearance of a current of opake white water, like milk, which, from June till August or September, covers the surface of the basin in which the Banda islands are situated. It is first seen about the Keys and Timor-Laot, then extends north to the shores of Amboyna and Ceram, and west to those of Timor and Ombai, losing itself between Floris and Celebes. During the night it is somewhat luminous, which makes the eye confound it with the horizon. It is dangerous for vessels, for the sea seems to undergo an inward boiling agitation, wherever it passes. During its prevalence the fish disappear[1]. This white water seems to come from the shores of New Guinea and the Gulf of Carpentaria.

Molucca sea.

White water.

[1] Valentyn, Banda.

Table of Geographical Positions in North-western Oceanica; or the Sunda, Philippine, and Molucca, islands.

Places.	Latitude.	Long. East from Lond.	Authorities.
SUMATRA.	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Acheen	5 22 0 N.	95 41 15	Mannevillette.
Bencoolen . . .	13 49 16 S.	102 10 45	Connaiss. des Tems.
Fort of Palembang	2 40 0 S.	103 23 15	Batavian Memoirs.
Nassau island, northern point .	2 18 0 S.		Crisp. Asiat. Researches.
Do. southern point	3 16 0 S.		Idem.
Island of Lucipara (in Banca Strait)	3 10 45 S.	106 17 45	Mannevillette.
Mount Monopin (in Banca Island)	2 3 0 S.	105 22 45	Idem.
Gaspar Island (in the strait between Banca and Billiton.	2 21 0 S.	107 5 15	Marchand. Fleurieu.
JAVA.			
Prince's Island (in the Sunda Strait)	6 36 15 S.	105 15 15	Mannevillette.
Island of Cracatoa (ibid)	6 6 0	105 36 15	Idem.
Batavia	6 10 33 S.	107 7 45	Batavian Memoirs.
Idem	6 12 0 S.	106 54 1	Connaiss. des Tems.
Surabaya . . .	7 14 23 S.	112 41 28	Rossel.
BORNEO.			
Banjermassing	2 40 0 S.		Batavian Memoirs.
Island of Balambangan . . .	7 30 0 N.	117 5 15	Dalrymple.
PHILIPPINES.			
Manilla	14 36 8 N.	120 52 15	Connaiss. des Tems.
Cape St. Augustine	6 12 0 N.	126 10 16	Idem.
Sooloo Island . .	5 56 0 N.	121 2 15	Dalrymple.
MOLUCCAS.			
Fort Victoria (Amboyna	3 41 41 S.	128 7 20	Rossel.
Cayeli (Booro) .	3 22 33 S.	127 2 49	Connaiss. des Tems.
Timor, north point	8 28 0 S.	125 22 15	Rossel.
Ibid. Fort Lefas .	9 12 15 S.	124 10 15	Idem.
Salayer island . .	5 45 0 S.	120 25 15	Idem.

BOOK LVI.

OCEANICA.

PART IV.

New Holland and its Dependencies.

BOOK LVI.

FROM the archipelago of north-western Oceanica, where the Moluccas raise their spicy heads, we proceed by a short interval to the Great Oceanic land, which the Dutch navigators have named New Holland. These were the first who procured for us any distinct knowledge of it, though the Portuguese and Spaniards had landed on its shores a century before. In no part has this immense island presented any aqueous opening by which the interior can be explored by navigators; no deep creeks, or large navigable rivers. Hence all our geographical knowledge of this extensive country reduces itself to a series of observations on its coasts, and even these labour under interruptions.

New South Wales.

New South Wales, or the east coast of New Holland, begins at Cape York, the point at which it comes nearest to New Guinea, in 10½° of south latitude, and ends at Hickes's point, about 38 degrees of south latitude; so that this coast is 1870 miles in length. The claims of the English have no fixed boundaries; they seem desirous to confound the whole of New Holland under the modern name which they have given to the east coast, which was minutely explored by Captain Cook. It is worthy of remark,

however, that the French geographers had, from a comparison of the tracks navigated by Abel Tasman, previously concluded on the existence and direction of this coast itself.

Chain of mountains.

A chain of mountains seems to run in a direction parallel to this coast, at a distance of from 500 to 800 miles. It is only of late that a passage has any where been found across that chain. The coast itself is high, but not mountainous; and is partly shaded by trees of gigantic size. Towards the south-east, a great part of it is covered with coppice: much also is occupied with marshes. About Botany Bay the soil is black, rich, and exceedingly productive in plants: from this last circumstance it has obtained the name which it bears. The north-east part seems lower. The coast is covered with mangroves, and skirted by an immense line of reefs, rocks, and islets: but in every part of it a mountain chain, lying north and south, bounds the horizon; and, though it is lower than the limit of perpetual snow, its numerous terraces, resembling those of the Alleghany Mountains and Mount Atlas, long proved insurmountable to the keen and enterprizing curiosity of Europeans. In the neighbourhood of Port Jackson, the first terraces begin at a distance of ten or twenty miles from the coast. Several expeditions, undertaken for the purpose of crossing the chain, proved unsuccessful[a]. Wilson proceeded 140 miles in a south-west direction, along an extensive table land, and broad valleys[b]. A passage was, however, at last discovered in 1814, and a road is now opened from Port Jackson of a tolerably easy ascent; but the descent from the summit of the ridge to the westward is steep and rugged. Beyond these hills a large extent of arable and habitable country has been discovered; and some large rivers, which, so far as has been hitherto found, seem to terminate in one or more extensive morasses. The elevation of Mount York, the highest

Height of the mountains.

[a] Péron, Voyage aux Terres Australes, I. 390.

[b] Collins's Account, &c. vol. II. p. 89.

BOOK LVI.

point in this quarter, above the level of the sea, is only 3200 feet[c]. Their breadth is fifty-eight miles.

Their constituent parts.

These mountains are very rocky; but granite, the characteristic of primitive mountains, has not been found as one of their constituents. They consist chiefly of sandstone and quartz; but in the flat country, to the west of the mountains, granite makes its appearance, and is the only sort of stone to be met with for 200 miles. Limestone is found in some parts, and Wilson saw an enormous block of rock salt. The promontories are in several places faced with columns of basalt. In Howe's Island these are high enough to be seen at a distance of thirty-three miles. The specimens of granite, mica, and rock crystal, which have been brought from New Holland by M. Bailly, and deposited in the collection of the Council of the Mines at Paris, are similar to those of Europe. None of the precious metals have hitherto been seen; but strata of a more useful mineral, coal, have been found to the north of Port Jackson, at a place called, from that circumstance, Newcastle.

Rivers.

None of the rivers discovered on this coast have the appearance of a long course. Near to Glasshouse Bay, Captain Flinders found the mouth of a wide river[d]. Endeavour river, farther to the north, is quite insignificant. Hawkesbury river waters, and sometimes inundates the English colony. Beyond the Blue Mountains two rivers have been found; one called Lachlan river, running a little to the south of west, which was followed by Mr. Oxley in 1817 as far as 500 miles west from Sydney, and within 150 of Cape Bernouilli, on the west coast; and another, called Macquarrie river, which has been followed to 30° 11′ of south latitude, and 147° 10′ of east longitude. Both are found to terminate in marshes or shallow lakes. It is most probable that they never reach the sea, and that ultimately their water is entirely dissipated by evaporation

[c] Wentworth's Description of New South Wales, 2d edition, p. 82.

[d] Collins, vol. II. p. 247.

from an extended surface, consisting partly of a lake and partly of a morass. Some of the natives previously gave an account of an immense inland lake, the borders of which were inhabited by white men; but that account was pure fabrication. The country has been found uninhabited; and, from the wildness and inutility of its vegetation at a certain distance from the mountains, and its evident liability to extensive inundations, is uninhabitable. In a westerly direction from these terminations of the rivers, no elevated grounds have been seen by the expeditions of discovery, so that the nature of the country beyond the humid flats remains unknown [e].

Climate and seasons.

Lying to the south of the equator, New Holland has seasons corresponding to those of the south of Africa and America, being the reverse of those of Europe; its summer corresponds to our winter, and its spring to our autumn. The heat of December rises to 112° of Fahrenheit. The forests and the grass have been known spontaneously to take fire [f]. The north-west wind, like the *khamseen* of Egypt, scorches the soil, and reduces it to a light dust [g]. Violent rains often fall on the Blue Mountains, cause a sudden rise of the rivers, and their waters, prodigiously augmented, deposit a fertilizing mud [h]. The crops have sometimes been devastated by hail of enormous size; some stones are said to have been found eight inches long. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, the climate is very healthy, and very favourable to population [i].

Vegetation.

The vegetation of New South Wales presents two gum species, the *Eucalyptus resinifera*, and the *xanthorrhœa*, which are characteristic of the whole of New Holland. Acajou is exported from it, and large trees have been discovered, resembling pines and oaks. Some of the wood of the forests is said to be too brittle for the purposes of carpentry. Perhaps the interior may display a vegetation different from that of the coasts. Nature has been spar-

[e] Wentworth's Description of New South Wales, p. 88—123. (2d edition.)
[f] Collins, II. p. 72—199. I. 153. [g] Péron, tome, I. p. 418.
[h] Collins, II. p. 199. &c. [i] Hunter on the Origin, &c. p. 375.

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ing of indigenous alimentary plants in this country. Some bad gramineous species, arum roots, the sago palm, the cabbage palm, and a species of wild pisang, are the only native vegetables that furnish food for man. The *Eucalyptus piperita* produces an oil which is found a good remedy in colic [k]. Wheat, maize, oats, and rye, are all cultivated, the two former in largest quantity. Those parts in which different trials have been made have rather too warm a climate for common barley and oats, though these grains have been found to succeed tolerably well on the poorer soils. The skinless barley, or Siberian wheat, arrives at great perfection [l]. Potatoes, cabbages, carrots, parsnips, turnips, pease, beans, onions, and all the vegetables grown in England, are produced in the English colony. The same locality is now famed for the goodness and variety of its fruits; peaches, apricots, nectarines, oranges, lemons, guavas, loquets, cherries, walnuts, almonds, grapes, pears, pomegranates, and melons, attain the highest maturity in the open air; and the pine-apple may be reared with a common forcing glass. The peach is the most abundant, and the most useful of the fruits. It is given, as in America, for feeding the hogs, and is fermented into cyder [m]. From the great extent of terrestrial latitude through which this country passes, we must conclude that those parts which lie nearer the tropic and the equator are capable of yielding products suited to the torrid zone, as soon as fair experiments are made; and that those, on the contrary, which have a higher southern latitude, will exhibit the vegetation of colder countries. Accordingly the island of Van Diemen has been found to produce apples, gooseberries, and some other fruits, in greater perfection than the colonial settlement of Port Jackson.

Alimentary plants.

Animals.

Of the quadrupeds of New South Wales, the largest is the kangaroo, which is sometimes six feet long, and can

[k] Wentworth, p. 124—126.

[l] White's Voyage to New South Wales, p. 226.

[m] Wentworth, p. 127—129.

kill a dog with a stroke of its tail. Some of them have a degree of elegance in their form [n]. There is also the kangaroo-rat, or *potoroo*, which is no larger than a common rat. The phascatomys, a species of opossum, called the wombat by the natives, has some points of resemblance to the bear. These animals, with the flying squirrel [o], and some others, are examples of the tendency of the quadruped races of this country to the nature of the didelphis, or opossum, by having a pouch under the belly. The *tachyglossus* resembles the African hedge-hog in figure, and the American ant-eater in its habits. It is not certain whether any wolves are found in this country. The native dogs are a sort of wolves, or jackals; they do not bark; some of them are very handsome, but they are not tameable, and are destructive to flocks.

Ornithorinchus.

The *ornithorinchus* of this country, is a singular animal, nature having in its structure departed from her usual laws. It is a quadruped with its jaw prolonged so as to form a bill like that of a duck, and its feet webbed like those of that bird. No appearance of breasts has been found in the female, which makes it probable that it is oviparous. In its internal structure it has some characters approaching to those of the seal, and some to those of the reptile tribes, whose eggs are hatched within the body of the parent. Externally viewed, it has the appearance of an intermediate link between the seal and the class of birds. It is about sixteen inches long [p], and lives in fresh water lakes.

Birds.

Birds are exceedingly abundant, and of numerous species. Among those which resemble the birds of Asia, are the brown eagle, several kinds of falcons, many beautiful paroquets, rooks, crows, a large species of martin-fisher; there are also bustards, partridges, and pigeons. This country has birds peculiar to itself. The largest

[n] Péron's Atlas, tab. XXVII.

[o] White's Voyage. Zimmerman, Australien, I. 891.

[p] Blumenbach, Abbildung naturhis. gegenstœnde, cah. 5. No. 41.

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of them is a new species of cassowary called the emu, which we are told is seven feet long, and its flesh tastes like beef. It is intermediate in character between the cassowary of the Moluccas and the American toucan[q]. The *Moenura superba* is as remarkable for beauty as the cassowary is for size. This bird has much the air of the pheasant and the peacock, with a tail formed like a lyre, glittering with orange and silver white[r]. Among aquatic birds are found the heron, a kind of *ibis* or curlew, and pelicans of gigantic size. There are also some peculiar species of the duck and swan kind. The black swan is an uncommon production of this continent. In size it exceeds the common white swan. Its beak is a rich scarlet, with a yellow point. All its plumage is of a very beautiful black, except the primary and secondary feathers, which are white. The eyes are black, and the feet dark brown. It is found on the Hawkesbury river, and other fresh waters near Broken Bay. In its motions it has all the gracefulness of the white species. This bird was first discovered by the Dutch navigator, Vlaming, on the banks of Swan river, in D'Endracht's Land[s].

Black swans.

Amphibia.

Green turtles abound about Norfolk island and Howe's island. They also make their appearance on the coast of New Holland. There are a great many lizards and serpents. The blue crab is an animal of uncommon beauty. The butterflies are splendidly diversified.

Fish.

Among the cetaceous tribes are dolphins and porpoises. There is also a singular fish which, when left uncovered by the ebbing of the sea, leaps about like the grasshopper by means of strong fins[t]. Thus, in these regions we find that, while nature has confounded birds with quadrupeds, she has in some measure allowed the fish to take possession of the land. The instincts of animals seem to have a more extensive range in proportion to the degradation

[q] Zimmerman, Australien, p. 884.
[r] Collins, II. p. 87.
[s] Valentyn, Description de Banda, vol. IV.
[t] G. Forster's Opuscula, p. 255, (German.)

of the human intellect in the same regions. The activity of the inferior creation presents a curious contrast to human indolence and indifference.

Inhabitants.

New South Wales seems to offer at least three native varieties of inhabitants, all belonging to the race of Oceanian negroes. In the neighbourhood of Glasshouse Bay, the savages have large heads, which in shape resemble those of the ourang-outang. Their very limited intellects, their hairy bodies, and habitual agility in climbing trees, seem to bring them near the monkey character [u]. To the south-west of the English colony, tribes have been found which speak a distinct language, and have hardier constitutions than those in the immediate vicinity of that colony. The latter are the only race that is well known to us. Perhaps no people in the world has made less progress towards civilization. They are simply divided into families or tribes, each of which is distinguished by adding the syllable *gal* to the name of its place of residence. The south shore at Botany Bay is called *Gwea*, and the tribe that lives in it *Gwea-gal*. The features of the women are not altogether unpleasant. A black thick beard, and pieces of bone stuck in the cartilages of the nose, give the men a disgusting appearance, and the fetid odour of their bodies, from the fish oil with which they habitually anoint themselves, to obviate the supposed noxious agency of the air, and the bites of musquitoes. They paint themselves with white or red figures. The women are distinguished by the want of two joints of the little finger of the left hand. This practice of amputation, together with that of extracting one or two teeth of the boys at an early period, are thought by some to be intended for the purpose of inuring them to suffer pain with fortitude. Their eye-sight is uncommonly acute. Some of them are almost as black in complexion as the African negroes; others are copper-coloured: their hair is generally long, and not woolly like that of the Africans. There must, however, be excep-

Description of the Gwea-gal.

[u] Collins, I. 554.

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tions to this rule, if the print of a native, called *Cobawn Wogy*, given by Mr. Dixon, is correct, which we have no reason to doubt [x]. They have flattened or aquiline noses, wide nostrils, hollow eyes, thick eyebrows, thick lips, larger mouths than any other people, and white regular teeth. Their arms, legs, and thighs, are extremely lean, probably in consequence of the indifferent quality of their diet. Those on the sea-coast live on fish: a few live in the woods on such animals as they can catch, and climb the trees to eat the honey contained in them, or to catch flying squirrels and opossums [y]. Their huts are rudely constructed of the bark of trees, in the shape of kilns. The fire is placed at the entrance, and the interior is full of smoke and dirt. There they sleep promiscuously, in so far as their hostilities and frequent assassinations will allow. It is only in the fabrication and use of their weapons that we perceive any proofs of intelligence. With the aid of a wooden rest they throw their javelins with such dexterity as to be sometimes formidable to Europeans. They kill fish with a kind of fork. The women also fish with lines made of the inner bark of some trees, and hooks made of the shell of the pearl oyster, filed to the requisite form with a stone. Some of them catch kangaroos in snares. Caterpillars and worms also constitute part of their food. Their canoes are made of the bark of trees, fixed on wooden frames. Nothing can equal the brutality of these tribes in their treatment of the weaker sex. In order to obtain a woman in marriage, a man lies in wait for her in some place of retreat, knocks her down with a bludgeon or wooden sword; and, while she is yet besmeared with blood, takes her to his own home, where the nuptial ceremony is completed in a manner too shocking to be described. Polygamy is very generally practised. Both sexes go naked, and have no feelings of shame. One tribe, which is strong

Dwellings.

Courtship and marriage.

[x] Narrative of a Voyage to New South Wales, Edinburgh, 1822. See the frontispiece.

[y] Collins' Account of Botany Bay, *passim*.

and numerous, maintains the singular privilege of extracting a tooth from all the youths belonging to another; this being the only mark of superiority on the one side, and homage on the other. This tribute of the teeth is exacted every four years, and is represented, in a number of engravings published by Mr. Collins, as a singular feature of savage life. In some parts of these plates we see the figure and character of man degraded by being placed on all four, and furnished with an artificial tail, as if the dog or the kangaroo were his superior. In other parts, the custom now mentioned seems to be a sort of initiation to physical pain and the hardships of war[z]. They have very faint notions of a future state, believing that at death they shall either roam through the regions of the air like cuckatoos, or return to the clouds from which they originally came—a strange notion, common to them with the Alfoors in the island of Ceram. These poor savages are also enslaved by superstition; believing in magic, sorcery, and ghosts. The latter may probably owe their rise to the disturbed sleep and the habitual terrors of their miserable lives. They employ charms against thunder and lightning; and pretend to foresee future events by the meteors called falling stars. When children die, they bury them; but the bodies of warriors who are past the meridian of life are burned: and their graves are distinguished by rude monuments. If a woman dies while suckling an infant, the latter is buried alive in its mother's grave[a]. Yet these barbarians are seen crying over the grave of a child or a friend. Their eyes, humanized by the tears of affection, are then turned up to heaven. They show some respect for old men, and do not labour under that irresistible propensity to theft which characterizes the islanders of Polynesia. Mr. Collins has given us a short vocabulary of their language. It is bold, harmonious, and expressive, and has no resemblance to any other known language. But in different parts of the country, the languages seem to differ as

Superstitions.

Language.

[z] Collins, vol. I. p. 567—581.

[a] Ibid. vol. I. p. 607.

BOOK LVI. much from one another as from those of the rest of the world.

ENGLISH COLONY. England has long been in the practice of disposing of her bad subjects in a manner both philanthropic and politic, by transporting them to certain distant countries which they employ them in cultivating and peopling. It was in this manner that the banks of the Potowmak and Delaware first received a civilized population. On the conclusion of the American war, there was some hesitation in the choice of a country to which criminals should be sent, who had received a sentence of banishment. Sir Home Popham was first employed in examining for this purpose the coast of Caffraria, between Negro Cape and the Cape of Good Hope: but, on the representations of Sir Joseph Banks, New South Wales obtained the preference. Here the first vessel, laden with colonists, arrived on the 20th of January, 1788. The first place of settlement was Botany Bay; but, this not having answered the expectations formed, Governor Phillips determined on removing the colony to a place twelve miles to the north, called Port Jackson, containing one of the finest harbours in the world, about twelve miles long, with numerous creeks and bays.

Town of Sydney. Sydney [b], the capital and seat of government of this remarkable colony, is in 33° 55′ of south latitude and 151° 25′ of east longitude, about seven miles from the entrance of the bay called the heads of Port Jackson. It stands principally on two necks of land, along which the water is in general of sufficient depth to allow vessels of the largest burden to approach to the sides of the rocks. In the first instance all the houses were built according to the wishes of individuals, without any plan, so that the older part of it, called "the Rocks," is quite irregular. But by the arrangements of Governor Macquarrie, a perfect regularity

[b] See Mr. Wentworth's interesting account of the Topography of this Colony.

has been established in most of the streets. It contains about 7000 inhabitants, but is diffused over a proportionably large space. The houses are in general small, and each has a garden adjoining to it. It contains many public buildings, and a few elegant private houses, built by successful traders, which give it the character of a rising metropolis. The market, which is held three days in the week, is well supplied with a variety of provisions. It has a bank with a capital of £20,000, which is allowed eight per cent. on money lent in discounting bills. It has one of those valuable institutions of recent invention, called "saving banks," which so happily promote a provident spirit among the labouring classes. There are two gratuitous schools, one for boys and another for girls, at which 224 children are at present educated; and some other institutions particularly directed to the dissemination of religious instruction. In this place, and in other parts of the colony, there are excellent academies for the education of the children of people in good circumstances. A weekly newspaper has been printed here almost from its first establishment.

Paramatta.

At the head of the harbour of Port Jackson, fifteen miles from Sydney, is another town called Paramatta, to which the river, for the last eight miles, is only navigable for boats of fifteen tons burden. This town consists chiefly of one street, a mile long. Though inferior to Sydney in the style of buildings, it contains some good ones, which, with the church, the government house, the new orphan house, and some villas, give it a respectable appearance. The population is estimated at 1200. Two annual fairs are held here. It contains some excellent public institutions, one of the most interesting of which is a school for the education and civilization of the aborigines of the country, founded five years ago. It has produced some pleasing and promising effects, and the children discover not the least deficiency in mental capacity.

Windsor.

Further from the sea, and about thirty-five miles from Sydney, is the town of Windsor, situated on one of the

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tributaries of the large navigable river Hawkesbury; which falls into the sea at Broken Bay, to the north of Port Jackson. It stands on a hill about 100 feet above the level of the sea. The buildings here, as at Paramatta, are, in general, weather-boarded without, and lathed and plastered within. It contains a church, a government house, hospital, barracks, court-house, store-house, and jail. It contains a more splendid inn than any other in the colony. Its population is about 600 souls, consisting chiefly of settlers, who have farms in the neighbourhood, with a few inferior traders and mechanics.

Hawkesbury river.

Windsor is situated at the confluence of the South Creek river with the Hawkesbury. The course of the latter (which, higher up, is called the Nepean) forms a sort of semicircular sweep, rising forty miles to the south of Sydney, about ten or twelve miles from the coast, proceeding northerly, as well as inland and westerly, then turning east and falling into the sea at Broken Bay, nearly as far to the north as its rise is to the south of the capital. It is navigable for vessels of 100 tons for about four miles above Windsor; which is 140 miles by water from its mouth, though only thirty-five in a straight line by land. The Hawkesbury is remarkable for its inundations, which occur, not annually, but occasionally. There have been four within the last two years. In the preceding six there had not been one. In these inundations, cattle, crops, and men, are swept away in indiscriminate devastation. They arise from the rains which fall among the Blue Mountains, promoted by the slow current of the river, but not increased by any confinement in the situation of the low country; for, after the banks of the river are filled, the water spreads over plains too extensive for the eye to reach. Such occurrences, when they happen, occasion a great destruction of produce; but on the latest occasion of this kind the scarcity was considerably relieved by a large importation of grain from the more recent colony of Van Diemen's Island.

Liverpool.

The town of Liverpool is about eighteen miles west,

and a little south from Sydney, on St. George's river; which flows into Botany Bay, and is navigable for boats of twenty tons burden as high up as the town. This town is only of eight years standing. The surrounding land is indifferent, but to the south there are some remarkably fertile districts; and Liverpool is likely to derive a degree of prosperity from its central situation, between these districts and Sydney.

Colonial institutions and improvements.

This colony has its regular establishment of courts, for the administration of civil and criminal justice. The roads, which have been formed between the different towns, by the direction of the governors, especially by Governor Macquarrie, have been admired for their goodness and great extent, particularly one leading across the Blue Mountains to a new station called Bathurst, on the west side of that range, which is 180 miles from Sydney. The climate of this colony has been found, on the whole, agreeable and salubrious. Pulmonary consumption and dysentery are the prevailing diseases. Hitherto we have heard of no such fatal epidemic fevers as are so frequent in some other colonies situated in warm climates. The small pox was introduced among the natives by Captain Cook's crews, and committed dreadful devastation; the descriptions of which are still handed down in simple songs, among the descendants of the sufferers. The soil is found to vary greatly in fertility, being most barren, in general, in the immediate neighbourhood of the shore, and more fertile at a distance of ten or twenty miles. The banks of the rivers, in some places, yield exuberant crops. On those of the Nepean, an acre of land has been known to produce, in one year, fifty bushels of wheat, and a hundred of maize.

Newcastle and Coal river.

About sixty miles to the northward of Port Jackson is the town of Newcastle, at the mouth of the Coal river. Its population is 550 souls; all of whom, except about thirty free settlers and fifty troops, are incorrigible offenders, who have been convicted in the colony, and re-transported to this place; where they are worked in chains, in

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the burning of lime, and the procuring of coal and timber. These articles are partly used in carrying on the public works at Port Jackson, and partly sold by government for the use of the colonists. The coal mines are considerably elevated above the level of the sea; the strata are visible on the face of the cliffs; very rich, and as easily worked as can well be imagined. The lime is made by calcining oyster shells, which are found in large heaps in the same neighbourhood, five or six feet above the level of the sea. Cedar and rose-wood are the chief species cut down, and have been removed in such quantities that they cannot now be obtained without going 150 miles or more up the river. The harbour is tolerably good, and receives vessels of 300 tons. A certain way up this river, it is thought probable that the summer heats are sufficient for the production of cotton, an article which would greatly add to the opulence of the colony. The fertility of the land round the harbour is superior to that of Port Jackson; and it will probably, by its varied advantages, attract a rapid accession of settlers.

Coal mines.

Port Macquarrie.

The attention of the colony has been directed to a situation still farther north than the Coal river, and to which the name of Port Macquarrie has been given by Mr. Oxley, whose expedition of inland discovery took this direction after having traced the Macquarrie river beyond the Blue Mountains as far as possible. Port Macquarrie is situated between the points called "Smoky Point" and "The Three Brothers," in south latitude 31° 23′ 30″. It had been seen by Captain Flinders. Mr. Oxley, however, discovered that it had a navigable entrance, and that the adjoining country is fine and fertile. From its latitude sanguine expectations are entertained that some of the productions of warm climates will succeed in this place, and that a reciprocal interchange of commodities may arise between it and the settlements of the more southerly and temperate climates, conducive to the prosperity of both.

We have already taken some notice of the more inland

parts in the latitudes of the British colonies, as the only specimen yet known to us of the interior of this singular continent. The first known pass leading over these mountains, which was discovered in 1814, is narrow, and at one place has a steep descent towards the interior. A more easy communication between these new regions and the first settlements was, in 1819, discovered by an expedition of fifteen days, executed by a large stock-holder of the name of Throsby. It is to the south of the one first discovered, and runs through lands of the best description. For an extent of 200 miles beyond the mountains the country abounds with rich herbage, and is well supplied with running water. As long as the rivers Lachlan and Macquarrie run nearly parallel to the mountain range, the one southerly and the other northerly, they are fed by a profusion of rivulets; but when they begin to take a westerly course, a want of water is perceptible, and increases with the distance. The country is, in general, free from underwood, and in many places has no timber at all. Bathurst plains, where there is a military depôt, contains 60,000 acres on which there is scarcely a tree. The extensive tract of country thus discovered is less adapted for increasing population than the easterly territory, in consequence of the distance and comparative difficulties of the communication between it and countries already peopled; but its herbage is sweeter and more nutritive for live stock; and its remote situation adapts it, in the meantime, to an unlimited extension of the speculations of the grazier.

Country to the west of the Blue Mountains.

From the materials of which the population of this whole colony was originally composed, it could not be expected to be, in the first instance, virtuous and orderly. Yet it is pleasing to find that several individuals who had been transported for the gross offensiveness of their actions in Europe, have betaken themselves to a virtuous industry; have maintained the most respectable conduct; and earned the reward of their ameliorated lives, in the acquirement of a comfortable, and even an opulent establishment. The prospects of success which the country affords, have also attracted free persons from Great Britain,

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who, of course, are justly viewed as, in the first instance, more to be depended on than convicts. Yet it is to be regretted that too many of these have, by their ungenerous principles, and their systematic and unbending aversion to the society of any quondam convict, however meritorious, created more mischief, in the form of division and discord, than can be compensated by the example of all their virtues. This evil can only be counteracted by new judicious combinations, for the express purpose of enabling all the varieties of the population to maintain some cordial intercourse, guarded by regulations, directed to the prevention of all the bad consequences of hazardous communications. A generous forgetfulness of faults, extended by one individual to another, is liable to be abused. But where no forgetfulness is understood to be implied, and no romantic confidence displayed, yet the system of distance not suffered to be carried beyond the bounds necessary to secure the future good habits of all concerned, methods the most conciliating and friendly might be openly followed, which would exhibit points worthy of the approbation and imitation of other communities, which are conceived to be more happily constituted, only because those who describe them have not turned their attention to the gall and the wormwood which enter their composition. We have been informed that some individuals, otherwise respectable, have declined to sit in a court of justice with any one who had been forcibly transported. Legislative enactments, tending to counteract such fastidious steps, might be conceived; but novel legislation is always a delicate task, and, unless adapted to circumstances with a masterly hand, and administered with an enlightened and refined policy, might be productive of extensive unforeseen mischief.—A large proportion of the convicts, however, give little evidence of reformation in their principles and lives.

Remarks on moral fastidiousness.

Industry.

Agriculture, and the other useful arts, have made considerable progress since the first establishment of the colony. The poverty of the earliest settlers, and the want of general resources, made the hoe husbandry necessary, but the plough is now almost universally introduced in agri-

culture. Several of the convicts work in mechanical arts to which they had been originally educated, and thus contribute to the conveniences of life. Some individuals have embarked considerable capital in various manufactures, such as woollen cloths, hats, earthen ware, salt, candles, soap, breweries, tanneries, and establishments of carpenters, blacksmiths, tinmen, rope-makers, and other artificers. Mr. Wentworth supposes the whole capital invested in the colonial manufactories to be nearly £50,000. Considerable trade and income are derived from the following various sources:

Expended by government[c],	£80,000
Ditto by foreign shipping,	6,000
Brought annually by emigrants and convicts,	30,000
Articles of export, collected from the adjacent seas and shores; as seal-skins, fish oil, and sandal-wood,	15,000
Produce exported to Africa, India, and north-western Oceanica,	10,000
Wool grown in the colony	10,000
Other sundries	6,000
	£157,000

The government collects, from various taxations, a revenue of £21,180.

From Port Jackson the direction of the coast is due south, as far as Cape Howe, where it turns to the southwest. The country, consisting of extensive plains, terminates in Wilson's promontory, which is the southern extremity of the whole continent.

VAN DIEMEN'S ISLAND.

The large ISLAND OF VAN DIEMEN, which it will be convenient to describe in this place, is separated from New South Wales by a channel called Bass's Strait, which is 100 miles broad, and contains a great many small islands. It is situated between the parallels of 40° and 44° of south latitude, and between 145° and 149° of east longitude. It was discovered in 1644 by Tasman, who named it Van

[c] Wentworth's Account of New South Wales.

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Diemen's land, in honour of the Dutch governor-general in the East Indies. It was considered as a part of the mainland of New Holland till 1797, when Captain Flinders, then a lieutenant of the ship Reliance, and Mr. Bass, the surgeon, discovered Port Dalrymple on its north coast, circumnavigated the island, and, on returning to Sydney, represented it as a promising country for a new colonial settlement.

In 1803 the first English settlement was formed at Risdon, consisting of a few convicts from Port Jackson, and a small military and civil establishment.

In 1804, an establishment under Lieut. Colonel Collins was removed from Port Philip in Bass's Strait, on the south coast of New Holland, to the south of Van Diemen's island, to the very place where Hobart Town, the present capital, stands. About the year 1811 the dependency of Norfolk island was abandoned; and its inhabitants were chiefly removed to this island, part being settled on the Derwent, above Hobart Town, in a place hence called New Norfolk, and the remainder in a fine district in the north part of the island, called Norfolk Plains, near the village of Launceston, previously formed.

Original inhabitants.

The aborigines of this island bear a great resemblance to those of Port Jackson, and other parts of New Holland; but their complexions are of a deeper black, and their hair more universally woolly. They are deficient in some of the arts practised by the former. They have no sort of canoes, and in moving across streams or narrow channels, merely make use of the rudest temporary rafts. Their spears are heavier and worse made; and, in throwing them, they make use of no wooden rest, like those of the continental tribes. Their huts, however, are much better formed. Their language is totally distinct from any one spoken on the continent. Their tempers are less ferocious, and their countenances more humane than those of the New Hollanders. They have shown themselves less disposed to entertain dread, distrust, and hostility to their European visitors, till a very lamentable occurrence con-

verted their unsuspecting friendliness into well-founded terror, and implacable antipathy. A military officer, in the absence of the lieutenant-governor, took an alarm on the approach of a large party of them to the English settlement, though accompanied by the emblems of peace and friendship, and ordered his men to receive them with musket shot, by which a dreadful havock was produced. The bad opinion formed of the settlers in consequence of that event has been most probably confirmed by the lawless conduct of those run-away Englishmen, who, under the name of bush-rangers, lead the lives of plunderers amidst the extensive wilds of this new country. The women are better formed, of more agreeable aspect, and cleanlier in their habits, than those of New Holland. They do not, like them, practise the amputation of part of the little finger. Some of them have formed temporary intimacies with the sailors belonging to English vessels in the seal trade, who visit the east coast of the island, and some specimens of a mixed breed have been produced of a copper colour, said to be handsome, with rosy cheeks and large black eyes the whites of which are tinged with blue, good teeth, and well-formed limbs. Sometimes the natives have been found naked, sometimes clothed in kangaroo skins: the women have generally more or less covering.

Climate.

The climate of this island has been found singularly salubrious for the European constitution. Neither the summers nor the winters are subject to great extremes of temperature. In the mountains the snow lies for the greater part of the year; but in the valleys never longer than a few hours. The mean temperature in the latter is about 60°, and the range from 36° to 80°.

Mountains.

This island contains several mountains of considerable elevation. The principal one is called the Table Mountain, situated immediately behind Hobart Town, and ascertained to be 3964 feet in height. Its immediate vicinity is liable to violent blasts, which seldom last more than three hours. Towards the western part of the island there is a range of high hills, called the Western Moun-

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tains, about 3500 feet in height. There is a great diversity of hills in other parts of the island, but none that can be called mountains.

Rivers.

The two principal rivers are the Derwent, running to the south, and the Tamar, running to the north. The banks of these two have attracted the earliest colonial settlements, in consequence of the convenience of their mouths, affording excellent harbours for shipping, and still more from the excellence of the soil along their banks. Their tributaries rise near one another in the centre of the island, and an easy communication is kept up in this direction through the interior, from the northern to the southern coast. To the east of the Derwent there is a river called the Coal river, which runs into a marine lake called Pitt Water. The river Tamar is of great importance, on account of the agricultural value of its banks, although towards the mouth the soil is sandy and barren. Port Dalrymple, at the mouth of this river, is beset with reefs and shallows, which render the entrance dangerous for vessels in foul weather. On the western side of the island, two rivers, supposed from their direction to proceed from a lake in the interior, flow into the head of a deep creek, called Macquarrie Harbour. Two others fall into an opening farther to the south, called Port Davey. A small river, called the Huon, runs from Table Mountain straight south, and empties itself into a creek at the mouth of the Derwent.

Lakes.

This island has numerous and extensive lakes. One which has been visited, on the top of the Western Mountains, is about fifty miles in circumference, and supposed to have several overflowing points, giving origin to rivers in different directions. There is one called Lemon's lake, besides several others in the central parts of the island.

Coasts.

The western, southern, and south-eastern coasts, are high and bold; but afford numerous bays, creeks, and harbours. The north coast is generally low and sandy. Derwent harbour is one of the best in the world. Mac-

quarrie harbour is difficult of entrance, but when entered affords safe anchorage.

Vegetation.

The natural trees of this island are nearly the same with those of New Holland. But no cedar, mahogany, or rose-wood, has been found here. There is a species of oak, called black-wood, which, with the Huon pine, serve as good substitutes for these useful trees. The Huon pine grows in great abundance on the rivers of Macquarrie harbour. The indigenous botany is, like that of New Holland, exceedingly scanty in articles fit for human sustenance. Labillardière describes many new plants, remarkable for the beauty and singularity of their flowers and foliage. The sands produce a species of *plantago*, called *tricuspidatus*, which is a good salad, and one of the most useful plants that this island furnishes. In the woods of the interior a new species of *ficoides* is found, the fruit of which is eaten by the natives. Those useful plants introduced by the British, which are adapted to the latitude of the country, grow in great luxuriance.

Animals.

The best known wild animals of Van Diemen's island are the kangaroo, the emu, the opossum, the squirrel, the bandycoot, the kangaroo rat, and the opossum-hyæna. The native dog of New Holland is here unknown. Yet the flocks of the settlers are not for that reason exempt from the attacks of beasts of prey, for there is a sort of panther which occasionally commits dreadful havock among them. It is an animal of considerable size, sometimes measuring six feet between the mouth and the end of the tail. But it is of a cowardly nature, and invariably flies from the approach of man. Among the numerous birds of these regions there is one called the wattle bird, about the size of a snipe, which is here reckoned a great delicacy. Oysters are in great perfection, and the rocks are literally covered with muscles. Some, though not all of the poisonous serpents found in New Holland, are also seen here. Among these are one called the black snake, resembling a piece of burned stick, and another called the yellow-brown snake.

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Minerals.

This island produces copper, iron, alum, coal, slate, limestone, asbestos, and basaltes, all in great abundance, with the exception of copper. It also affords cornelian, rock crystal, chrysolite, jasper, marble, and many petrifactions. In the neighbourhood of Launceston there are mountains of iron-ore, which must prove a source of great wealth to the island when once it is sufficiently populous. Coal also is met with in extensive beds, particularly near Macquarrie harbour, where an attempt is just made to work it by means of convicts, under the control of a party of military[d]. The success of this attempt is as yet unknown.

Topography, and state of the colony.

Van Diemen's Island is divided into two counties, Buckingham in the south, and Cornwall in the north. The capital of Buckingham county is Hobart Town. This place is described in the official account of Governor Macquarrie's visit in 1821, as exhibiting a most encouraging contrast in its present state to its appearance in 1811, the period of his former visit. Instead of wretched huts and cottages, of which it had then consisted, there were substantial buildings laid out in regular streets; several of the houses were of two stories, and in a respectable style of architecture. It contained the usual public buildings, four water-mills, a signal post, and telegraph. The people discovered much industry and enterprise, and a plan was formed for the construction of a commodious quay.

The county of Cornwall does not differ materially from Buckinghamshire, being equally fertile, and rather more so in proportion to its area, as the greater part of the land is lower and better watered. The settled parts are all on the Tamar river, and in its vicinity. The village of Launceston is delightfully situated at the junction of a tributary called the South Esk with the Tamar; but, since the establishment has been formed at George Town, it has not the advantage of being the chief place in the county. The situation selected for George Town is not only in itself beautiful,

[d] MS. Letters from Lieut. Governor to the Colonial Office. MS. Letters from Surgeon Spence, appointed on the expedition, and others. TR.

and well supplied with water, but, being at the mouth of the river, is better fitted for keeping up the communication between this part of the colony and other countries by sea. Governor Macquarrie has marked out four other situations for townships in the interior, along the basins of the Tamar and Derwent.

In all the inhabited parts good roads have been made between Hobart Town and the different settlements.

The exports from this island consist of cattle, sheep, wool, flour, corned meats, dried fish, hides, barilla, tanning bark, seal skins, whale oil, and spars. It appears from the notices in the Sydney Gazette, that vessels have sailed for the Mauritius and other foreign parts, laden with 1200 sheep or fifty cows at a time*. Wool has every appearance of becoming a staple commodity in this country, as both its quantity and quality have been very much improved by the introduction of the Merino breed of sheep, which is found to succeed as well, if not better, than in any other part of the world. The great fertility of the land, with the present scanty state of its nascent population, enables it to export corn and other landed produce, wherever a market presents itself. When the crops on the river Hawkesbury, in the parent colony, were destroyed by a flood in 1817, about 20,000 bushels of wheat, besides 380 tons of potatoes, were sent from this island to supply the deficiency thus unexpectedly created. Persons zealous for the prosperity of the colony, in a sense strictly commercial, have been very desirous that the liberty of brewing and distilling liquors from grain, both for home consumption and exportation, which has hitherto been withheld by the colonial regulations, should be granted to the settlers. The prevailing passion for these articles, with all the mischiefs attending the excesses to which the greater part of the quantities made are subservient, forms at present a necessary element in commercial and political economy; and the important problem is not yet settled, how

Exports.

* See the Sydney Gazette, July 18, 1818.

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mankind might be delivered from their evil consequences without the creation of fresh mischiefs?—A court of civil and criminal justice is established at Hobart Town, but pleas exceeding the value of £50, and capital criminal trials, are removed to Sydney. On the whole, this country presents at this moment such an encouraging aspect, that, for those inhabitants of Great Britain who, in their own country, labour under a want of satisfactory prospects from the application of a small capital, and possess the means requisite for undertaking a distant emigration, Van Diemen's island is considered as the most eligible country, and the tide of emigration to it is consequently very strong. For a few years three or four vessels annually have sailed from Britain, laden with emigrants possessed of more or less capital. Not only entire families, but neighbourhoods and clans have in some instances embarked in that distant speculation, that, while each establishes his own fortune, they may encourage and comfort one another's efforts, by keeping up those habits of social intercourse which had been formed in their native country.

Statistical tables.

In a small tract on Van Diemen's island, by Mr. Evans, surveyor-general, a table is given containing the names of all the settlers to whom lands have been assigned, with the number of acres given to each. In this table there are the names of 694 persons, of whom only 309 have lands to the extent of 100 acres, and all the latter have under 500, except sixty. The largest estate (3000 acres) is that of Lieut.-Col. Thomas Davey. Horatio William Mason, Elizabeth Paterson, and Edward Abbot, have each 2000, and other six have 1200 or upwards. The British government gives to emigrants among its own subjects, lands in proportion to the capital which they take along with them. None get any encouragement who take less than £500 Sterling. These generally receive a grant of 500 acres; but the extent given is in some measure left to the discretion of the governor. No person is prohibited by the British laws from settling at his own risk, but some friends of that new world wish that greater positive encouragement

were given to virtuous persons in the humblest spheres of life, whose society might operate as a correcting ingredient in the motley population. BOOK LVI.

Acres of land in cultivation in 1819			89,746
Ditto in 1820			116,641
Horses, male and female, in 1819,			363
Ditto in 1820,			411
Horned cattle in 1819,			23,124
Ditto in 1820,			28,838
Sheep in 1819,			172,129
Ditto in 1820,			182,168
Free persons and settlers in 1819,	Men	887	
	Women	411	
	Children	674	
			1,972
Ditto in 1820,	Men	1111	
	Women	530	
	Children	1060	
			2,701
Convicts in 1819,	Men	1954	
	Women	278	
			2,232
Ditto in 1820,	Men	3107	
	Women	370	
			3,477

Two successive years compared.

We now return to Wilson's Promontory, on the continent of New Holland. The whole coast, from this to Cape Farewell, in 129° 56′ of east longitude, receives from M. Péron the designation of Napoleon's Land, but Captains Grant and Flinders, who had previously visited a large portion of it, have given the places names different from those of the French navigators. Southern shores of New Holland.

Mr. Bass, after having turned the southern point of New Holland, discovered Western Port, a superb basin, which,

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when more minutely explored by Baudin's expedition, was found to contain two islands. Governor King's Bay, in which Port Philip is situated, was discovered by Captain Grant in 1800. This English navigator believed that he had followed the coast from the 142d degree of east longitude to 146° 45′ [f]; but it appears from the longitude which he assigns to Cape Otway, the Cape Marengo of the French, that his discoveries must have begun a degree farther west than he thought. His Cape Northumberland corresponds to the Cape Boufflers of the French, and his CapeBridgewater to their Cape Montaigne. But his island of Lady Julia Percy is badly delineated, and, according to the more exact observations of Baudin and Freycinet, cannot have the extent which he assigns to it.

Productions.

This coast seems to contain several fertile places. Cape Otway and Cape Northumberland are covered with fine forests. The large gum-bearing trees prevail in the neighbourhood of Port Philip and Western Port. In that quarter there are some extremely hard and heavy kinds of timber, among which is a species of acajoo [g]. Different sorts of apples and wild plums grow here, likewise some leguminous species, which seem to be adapted for human sustenance. There is a species of indigo, and a grass which has been called kangaroo grass. Besides the animals common to the whole continent, wolves [h] and wild cats [i] have been found here. Some traces of a very large quadruped have been believed to be observed. Among its numberless birds are distinguished some beautiful parroquets, as the *Psittacus fimbriatus*, and *tabuan*, the laughing bird, and the bell bird [k]. The cries of a flock of the latter resemble the sound of the bells on the necks of waggon horses, announcing their approach at a distance. The sea abounds with fish, and there is excellent salmon in the rivers.

Quadrupeds.

[f] Grant's Narrative of a Voyage of Discovery, p. 68, &c. London, 1803.

[g] Tuckey's Voyage to establish a Colony at Port Philip, p. 167. 326. 230.

[h] Idem, p. 201. [i] Grant, p. 159. [k] Grant, p. 112.

The inhabitants of these coasts differ from one another, both in moral and in physical character. Captain Grant saw some men who approach to the ourang-outang, whose hideous picture we have already drawn. They eat birds in a raw state, with all the entrails. Some of the other savages accuse them of cannibalism[l]. In the neighbourhood of Western Port, the inhabitants are more numerous, seem to be better formed, and live in villages under chiefs, who deck their heads with the feathers of the black swan, paint their bodies with red, white, and black pigments, and are carried on the shoulders of their subjects[m]. But this tribe manifests a haughty sense of its power, and a ferocious and inhospitable character. In filthiness of habits they surpass the most disgusting picture that imagination can form. Inhabitants.

The country around Western Port, provided with water and wood, rich in plants and animals, affords a promising locality for a European establishment. The shores of Port Philip, where the English wished to settle a colony, has an excellent vegetation, but is deficient in fresh water.

The country to the north of Cape Northumberland was called Napoleon's Land by Captain Baudin, who discovered it. Between that Cape and Cape Mollien, the shores seemed to M. Péron to be dreary and barren in the extreme, presenting the uniform aspect of one continued arid rock, rising like a wall from the water's edge. Yet numerous columns of smoke were observed, indicating a considerable population. An inland survey would perhaps modify the views entertained by our navigators, who admired nothing but the immense flocks of sea-birds which covered the coast, and the quantity, no less wonderful, of seals and dolphins with which the sea swarmed[n]. At the peninsula of Fleurieu, which projects to the west, the face of the country begins to change. More elevated in Baudin's country, or Napoleon's Land.

[l] Idem, p. 114, 115. [m] Tuckey, p. 170—178. [n] Peron, I. 317—324.

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Gulf St. Vincent.

Spencer's Gulf.

the interior, and more indented on the shore, it opens to form the Gulf of St. Vincent, which is eighty-three miles long, and from twenty-two to twenty-six broad. This gulf is bounded on the north-west by York's Peninsula, which is shaped exactly like a boot, and ends in Spencer's Cape. At the mouth of the same gulf is Kangaroo island, 193 miles in circumference. On the west side of York Peninsula is Spencer's Gulf, between Cape Spencer and Cape Catastrophe. In the middle of the entrance there are some islands, called by the French Berthier's islands. This gulf penetrates 190 miles into the country, and terminates in two channels too shallow to allow the Casuarina schooner to explore farther. The existence of a large river in this place is probable; but the probability was not confirmed by any difference to be observed between the water here and that of the neighbouring sea. Yet it is possible that the waters of some river may flow in a direction somewhat different from the exact track of our navigators. On its western shore we find a harbour, which was called by the French Port Champagny, one of the finest and safest in New Holland. In all the three noble basins of which it is formed, the bottom is excellent, and the depth is from ten to twelve fathoms to the very shore. The mouth of it is protected by La Grange's island, about twelve miles in circumference. Its shores present a complete contrast to the sterility and monotony of those of the neighbourhood, being finely elevated and covered with thick forests. M. Péron found no fresh water, but the strength and freshness of the vegetation, and the elevation of the land, showed that there must be some rivulets, or some considerable spring [a].

Cape Catastrophe.

To the west of this large gulf is Cape Catastrophe, on the south of which there are some reefs and a small archipelago. Here Captain Flinders lost one of his boats with a number of men. From Cape Lincoln to Cape Correa, the coast, which contains a creek or bay, has not been nar-

[a] Péron, I. p. 327.

rowly examined. Lewis Bay presents an extent of coast of more than forty miles, where our navigators saw several fires belonging to the inhabitants. The islands here are very numerous on the Dutch charts. St. Peter's islands, discovered by Peter Nuyts in 1628, occupy a large space in every direction.

Nuyts's Land.

Nuyts's Land begins about the 132d degree of longitude, and the coast in this part runs almost due west, giving a much greater breadth to this vast continent in its northern than in its southern part. This also terminates what may be considered as the southern shore of New Holland [p]. It is unfortunate that the discoverer has left us no circumstantial description of it. Two modern travellers, Vancouver and d'Entrecasteaux, have minutely examined its western part, but the east part, which forms a sort of gulf, by turning somewhat to the north, deserves to be better known than it now is.

D'Entrecasteaux's observations.

D'Entrecasteaux only once anchored on this dangerous coast. Legrand's Bay, the place where he made some stay, is a vast basin, protected by more than twenty islets, rocks, and shallows [q]. Some of these islets are composed of granite, containing black mica. There are likewise needle-shaped crystals of black schorl. Other islets have on their highest parts calcareous rock, in horizontal strata. The rock is fine-grained, with some small cavities, and without any appearance of shells. The shore of the continent consists of a calcareous sand, sometimes in heaps. Fresh water is found at moderate distances from the sea. At a distance of four hours' walking a large lake was found, the margins of which were marshy on the side towards the sea, with which it communicated.

Plants seen by M. Labillardière.

Among the plants which Labillardière observed in this wild country, so seldom visited by any European, are several new species of the new genus called *Banksia* by Forster, belonging to the family of the *Thymeleæ*; also the

[p] Desbrosses, Histoire des Navigations aux Terres Australes, I. p. 342.

[q] Rossel, Voyage de d'Entrecasteaux, I. p. 213.

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Eucalyptus cornuta, a new species; a new papilionaceous species, called *Chorizema ilicifolia*; and another new plant approaching to the genus *Iris*, and denominated *Anigozanthus rufa*. On the sandy borders of the sea was found the grass known under the name of *Spinifex squarrosus*; and a beautiful species of *Leptospermum*, with silvery leaves[r]. Among the animals are found the small seal of Buffon, but the head is smaller than the neck, and the ears are conical, and not open, as described by that naturalist. Among the birds are the *Goeland burgomaster* of Buffon; the penguin, called *Aptenodyta minor*; the Molucca parroquet, swans, and cassowaries, which were seen by the French navigators. In December, one of the summer months in this part of the world, the weather was cold enough to oblige them to use fires; it was in the mean time very rainy. Some savages were seen in a state of complete nudity, but they kept aloof from their visitors.

King George's Sound.

Vancouver stopped chiefly at King George's Sound, one of the best harbours on this coast. The naturalist Menzies, one of his companions, made some curious observations on the country. The shores contain hills of middling height, and some high rocks, the feet of which were destitute of verdure, and worn by the waves of the troubled ocean. In the interior are mountains of limestone or sandstone, the whitish and notched surfaces of which, in some measure, resemble ruinous buildings. The country near Cape Baldhead is principally composed of coral; a substance not only found on the sea-shore, but on the tops of the highest adjoining hills, which were computed to have an elevation of a thousand feet. The coral retains its natural appearance, and is of various degrees of friability[s]. There are likewise some chalky soils, granite and quartz rocks, and marshes covered with turf, and impregnated with ochre. The climate appeared to our navigators to be agreeable and healthy. There was a great va-

[r] Labillardière, vol. I. p. 402, 404, 412.
[s] Vancouver's Voyage, vol. I. p. 62 and 77.

riety of plants and flowers. In the forests, which were easy of access, and not difficult to penetrate, trees were observed bearing a resemblance to the holly; others which seemed to be the gum-bearing species found in New South Wales; and two kinds of odoriferous woods. Vultures, parroquets, parrots, and a variety of small singing birds, peopled the woods. Pelicans, ducks, and black swans, made their appearance in great abundance. The natives seemed to be a wandering race; their villages, recently deserted, were composed of wretched huts, in the shape of half a bee-hive.

Mount Gardner, near Port George, has the appearance of a volcanic cone [t].

Lewin's Land.

That part of New Holland which projects more in a south-west direction, has the name of Lewin's Land, from the Dutch word for "the Lioness," which was the name of the first vessel that touched at it. Its boundaries are arbitrary. We shall first take notice of the promontory, which forms three capes, Hamelin, Mentelle, and Naturaliste. Near the last of these, Depuch, the naturalist, found a beautiful granite, in regular and very numerous layers, which elucidated a contested point in mineralogy.

Geographer's Bay.

Geographer's Bay, which was discovered in Baudin's expedition, has marshy coasts, with salt pools, tantalizing the eye with the counterfeited appearance of a river. Here some feeble, wild, and stupid savages lead wandering lives. Yet they had formed plantations of trees, which had the appearance of being intended for devotional meetings; and they had drawn some regular figures, to which a mysterious meaning seemed to have been attached. The ground, though covered with beautiful trees, particularly the *Melaleuca*, the *Xanthorrhéa*, and a fine close sod, seemed to be impregnated only with brackish water [u]. Here were seen the phenomena of the *mirage*, with its varying illusions.

[t] Atlas du Voyage aux Terres Australes, pl. VI. fig. 1.

[u] Péron, I. p. 77. Leschenault's Journal, MS.

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Edel's Land. Swan River.

Edel's Land comprehends the middle part of the west coast. Swan River, explored for fifty-six miles of its course by M. Bailly, waters a low country, which is pervaded by limestone strata, and covered with beautiful *Eucalypti*, on the branches of which were seen countless flocks of beautiful parrots [x]. The shallows prevented this navigator's boat from proceeding farther. He perceived a lofty chain of mountains at a distance. He heard a bellowing much louder than that of an ox from among the reeds on the river side, which made him suspect that a large quadruped lay somewhere near him. This circumstance is the more remarkable, as we are told by the learned and faithful Dampier, that he found, near Shark's Bay, the head and skeleton of a hippopotamus, and gathered some teeth of the lower jaw of the same animal, which were a little bent [y].

The country in which Swan River is situated is called, in some maps, Dinning's Land.

To the north of this river the land seems to have a moderate elevation. It is skirted with sandy islands, breakers, and coral reefs. The isle of Rottnest and Houtman's Abrolhos, where Pelsart was shipwrecked, are the best known points. Pelsart found the coast of the main land destitute of plants and trees, and covered with large anthills like huts; the air was full of flies, and fresh water was exceedingly scarce [z].

D'Endracht's Land.

D'Endracht's Land, or the land of harmony, has a very low coast. The mountains are seen in the interior at a distance of 25 miles. The sandy country round the large bay, called "Shark's Bay," produces sea-fennel, brambles, and a long grass, growing in detached tufts.

Productions.

The *Pterocarpus draco*, the mango, and some other trees, also grow here; the trunks are very thick, but not more than ten feet high. Dampier says that he saw rab-

[x] Bailly, quoted by Péron, I. 178, &c.
[y] Dampier's Voyage, IV. p. 113.
[z] Debrosses, t. I. p. 454.

bits with extremely short fore legs. These were kangaroos. The guana lizards here are very large, and their appearance made this intelligent navigator shudder [a]. The trees and shrubs had generally blue flowers. According to M. Péron this whole coast is covered with petrified shell-fish, and the plants are very often encrusted with petrified matter. The unfortunate naturalist Riche remarked, that a new Perseus seemed to have carried off a second head of Medusa on these wonderful shores. The incrustations are formed with extraordinary rapidity. They were found covering the shrubs, the remains of animals, and even portions of their excrements [b].

Petrifactions.

The peninsula of Péron divides the inner part of Shark's Bay into two gulfs, called by the French *Havre Freycinet* and *Havre Hamelin*, both of which afford good anchorage. Fresh water seems to be every where wanting; vegetation languishes; but the seals, the whales, and fish of all kinds, including the large sea-serpents, render the sea as populous as the land is desolate. The islands called Dorre and Dirk-Hartog, though very sandy, support shrubs of *mimosæ*, and a great number of kangaroos [c].

Shark's Bay.

De Witt's Land comprehends all the north-west coast of New Holland, part of which is, in some maps, denominated "Dampier's Land." It is the least known of the whole. Baudin's expedition has not cleared up any one of the doubts to which the researches and conjectures of Dampier had given origin. This English navigator had examined four or five points of the coast, and was persuaded that they belonged to a long chain of islands, beyond which, as beyond the Sunda islands, vast gulfs, and perhaps an inland sea, would be found. All this coast, says Dampier, is covered with a succession of sandy downs. For half the year the north-west winds urge the waves with violence against the coasts, and render the tides extremely irregular. The

De Witt's Land.

Soil and climate.

Winds and tides.

[a] Dampier, vol. IV. p. 101—104. Edition in 12mo. Amsterdam.

[b] Péron, Memoire sur quelques faits, &c.

[c] Leschenault's Journal, MS.

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surrounding sea is covered with marine plants, crabs, and a sort of sea-wrack which resembles fish spawn. Very little water or grass is found on the coast. It seems even to be deserted by birds and all sorts of animals. The only remarkable productions are, a tree the wood of which is red like that of sassafras, and another of the dragon's blood kind; the latter is of the size of an apple tree, with black leaves and whitish bark. The gum exudes from the knots and fissures of the trunk.

Inhabitants.

Some miserable tribes of savages wander on the islands and coasts of this country. According to Dampier they are a tall, straight, and meagre race. Their limbs are long and loose, their heads large, their foreheads round, the eye-brows thick, the hair black and crisp, and the complexion completely that of the negro. Two teeth of the upper jaw are universally wanting, either naturally or in consequence of being artificially extracted, as is the practice among some of the people of Africa [d]. Their food consists of shell-fish and other fish. Their lances and swords are made of wood. They sleep in the open air, and seem to live exactly like the inferior animals.

Baudin's navigators fixed several detached points. But the great question of the existence of aqueous communications with the interior of the continent has not been in any degree elucidated, notwithstanding all the learning and patience which Messrs. Freycinet and Boullanger bestowed in calculating and combining the observations which have, at different periods, been made.

Cape Willem.

The Cape Murat of M. Freycinet's atlas seems the same with the Cape Willem of the old Dutch charts, and of the atlas of d'Entrecasteaux. Willem River, on the south side of the promontory, can furnish no facilities for exploring the interior; but to the north-east a gulf, sixty miles wide at the mouth, and containing several islands, has a circumference not yet ascertained, and perhaps a connection with some inland sea. Capes Poivre, Malouet,

[d] Dampier, vol. II. p. 141.

and Dupuy, which form one large promontory, may as well belong to a separate island as to the continent of New Holland. From this part to Dampier's Archipelago the coast of the main land is unknown. But from the 116th to the 120th degree of longitude, it seems to form an uninterrupted and straight line of low land. Opposite to this part of the coast the Archipelago of Forrester is situated, one of the islands of which is composed of large pentagonal prisms of basalt, in some places rising into walls, in others forming an extended tesselated pavement like the Giant's Causeway. In several places insulated columns shoot up from the bosom of the deep[c]. The Geographer's Shallows, and those of the *Planariæ*, occupy a large space. The island of Bedout is fifty-six miles from the continent.

Dampier's Archipelago.

Forrester's Archipelago.

Arriving at the 121st degree of longitude, we find a gap in the coast of thirty or forty miles, and perhaps an opening into the continent. Its line of direction then turns rapidly to the north-west and north, a change vaguely expressed in old charts, which merely carry the whole coast too far to the west. Cape Missiessy, and Cape Bossut, preceded by Casuarina Reef and Cape Villaret, belong to the continent, or else to a large island; but between the last mentioned promontory and Cape Huygens, we find, in Freycinet's atlas, the same large and deep opening formerly pointed out by Dampier in the same situation. An island of considerable size, near to Cape Huygens, has received the name of Gantheaume. If an attempt had been made to enter this opening, an ampler field would have been undoubtedly furnished for doing a similar honour to the names of other celebrated men. From Cape Huygens the coast runs north, with a slight westerly inclination, as far as Cape Berthollet. Here we find another gap, and very probably a passage which may communicate with that on the south of Cape Huygens. The islands Lacepede and Carnot, and the "Whale Bank,"

Indications of an opening.

[c] Péron, I. p. 130.

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front the entrance of this channel or gulf. From Cape Borda to Cape Rhulière, for five degrees of longitude, the coast runs north-east; and, though not completely examined, it presents no indications of any passage. Old charts mark, in this part, several deep bays, and a tunnel-shaped gulf, on which the French expedition has thrown no additional light.

Island Adele.

Opposite to this coast we have the important and detached island of Adele, with the remarkable Cape Mollien, which, in the earliest sketches of charts, was represented as a part of the continent. Then follows the large archipelago, called by the French navigators the Archipelago of Buonaparte, and formerly marked on the old charts as "certain islands seen by Saint Allouarn." These countries present every where the most sterile and forlorn aspect. Whitish rocks shoot up in square, or pointed, or curiously projecting forms. Some of them have the appearance of mountains fallen on other mountains. No residence is furnished for man in a country from which vegetation is banished, and which the sky, always dry and scorching, never visits with a genial dew[f]. The leading islands go under the names of Keraudren, Fontaines, Cassini, and Bougainville. To the north of this last, which is the largest, is the large "Bank of Holothurias," peopled with myriads of molluscæ. From the mast-head a large island is seen lying north and south, which is perhaps the commencement of some chain of islands.

Archipelago of Buonaparte.

From Cape Rhulière to Cape Fourcroy, the coast forms a large concavity, with a south-easterly direction. Between the bank of Holothurias and the Barthelemi islands, M. Freycinet's inquiries present a wide gap, but the old charts give no indications of any passage.

Cape Van Diemen.

De Witt's Land ends at Cape Van Diemen, which we think ought to preserve its original name, though the atlas of the "Voyage aux Terres Australes" gives it the name of Leoben. It is a frivolous procedure to change the names

[f] Péron, I. p. 137.

of old discovered countries, merely because a more recent navigator may have corrected their position by a few minutes of longitude.

North coast, Arnheim's Land.

From the preceding view of the north-west coast, we find it presenting a series of gaps, which afford much scope for future discoveries. The north coast appears at first view to have been more completely explored. From Cape Van Diemen to the Gulf of Carpentaria, a Dutch chart lays down the coast in a positive manner [g]. It marks Van Diemen's Bay, the waters of which were found to be white and luminous, in the same way as we have already observed to be the case with the Molucca sea [h]. This bay seems to be bordered by a chain of mountains. Farther east, the same chart lays down a bay under the name of the "Bay of Difficulty [i]," surrounded with low lands; and the river Speult, at the mouth of which are the islands of Crocodiles. The east part of this coast has got the name of Arnheim's Land, a name which some think should comprehend the whole coast from Cape Van Diemen eastward, in order that the name of Van Diemen's Land, as applied to the westernmost portion of it, may be abolished, and become exclusively appropriated to the island now so famous on the south of Bass's Strait. All ambiguity in this particular may, however, be prevented, by the easy expedient of assigning to the latter, as we have done in the preceding pages, the name of "*Van Diemen's Island.*"

Van Diemen's Bay.

Gulf of Carpentaria.

The Gulf of Carpentaria, surrounded by a country called Carpentaria's Land, presents in the Dutch charts so many mouths of rivers, as might tempt us to regard it as one of the chief recipients for the waters which proceed from the interior of New Holland. The leading ones seem to be Tasman's River in the west, and Caron River in the south. But we are told that Captain Flinders, on exploring these shores with the utmost care, found all the river beds either dry or filled with sea-water. A large island,

Rivers.

[g] See Valentyn's Description of Banda.

[h] See page 526

[i] Moeyelike Becht.

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situated in the west part of this gulf, to which the Dutch navigators gave no name, has received from the Germans that of Busching Island.

Cape York.

On the east side of the Gulf of Carpentaria is Cape York, which is the northern extremity of this continent, projecting in such a manner as to form the strait called Endeavour strait, which separates it from the island of New Guinea, and connects the Molucca sea with the Great Ocean on the south and east. The coast, now skirted with a line of reefs, runs first south-east to Cape Flattery, then turning nearly due south, it presents us with the small river

Endeavour River.

called Endeavour River, where Captain Cook saw some caïmans, (a kind of crocodiles,) and oysters of extraordinary size. Here the savages, like the Otaheitans, baked their bread in furnaces dug in the ground. Their canoes were similar to those of the Phenicians[k]. Cape Tribulation nearly proved fatal to this unwearied navigator. Magnetic island, near Halifax bay, is so called from the influence which it exerts on the mariner's compass in the ships which approach to it. Here the coast turns again to the south-

Bay of Inlets.

east, as far as the Great Bay of Inlets, remarkable for a number of indentations which seem to indicate either channels or rivers. The easterly direction of the coast ends with Harvey's Bay, which has Sandy Cape for its eastern extremity. At this bay the huts of the savages are built with some degree of solidity, and roofed with the bark of a kind of tea tree, the *Melaleuca trinervis* of White. Proceeding almost due south, we find Pumice River, where Captain Flinders thought he found some evidences of the existence of a volcano in the neighbourhood[l]. Several large rivers discharge themselves into Glasshouse Bay, where stones of volcanic appearance are also found. After passing Cape Byron and Shoal Bay we arrive at Port Macquarrie, the mouth of a navigable river lately discovered by Mr. Oxley in his second exploratory tour.

[k] Cook, in Hawkesbury's Collection, III. p. 570—572, &c.

[l] Flinders, quoted by Collins, II. 242. 235.

We have now made the circuit of the shores of this vast and singular country, but have been unable to follow it without several interruptions. The interior completely escapes our inquiries. No gulf or large river has put it in our power to pass within the mystic circle of its general outline. Here research gives place to reasoning and conjecture. Does the territory consist of an immense sandy desert, by which the rain from the heavens is absorbed? This supposition is favoured by the burning winds which on all sides proceed from the interior. On the other hand, the inequalities which must exist in a territory so extensive, the heights of such mountains as have been seen, and the general copiousness of the rains of the torrid zone, have been supposed to favour the probability of its giving birth to large rivers. Several streams undoubtedly exist which have not been perceived, even by those navigators who were within sight of their mouths, in the same manner as the river at Port Macquarrie, passed unobserved by Captain Flinders, when he sailed along the coast, at a moderate distance, and described the rocky prominences which it presents. But if there had been any river of uncommon magnitude, it is not probable that the freshness which it would have imparted to the sea water in its vicinity would have escaped observation, and not led to more minute investigations. The only inland parts yet examined are near the southern extremity, where the whole breadth of the continent is only about a fourth part of that of its northern and central portions. If that which was explored by Mr. Oxley, is to be considered as a faithful specimen of the whole, we must conclude it to consist of an unvaried level surface; part of which is rendered habitually marshy, and is frequently laid under water, by becoming the termination of large or numerous rivers; part consists of a real lake, and part probably is permanently arid, like the African sands on the east and west of the Nile. But there may still be chains of mountains, or detached *oäses*, which are fertilized by benignant rains, and rendered more moderate in temperature by their comparative elevation. Some have supposed that this whole

Conjectural geography of the interior.

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land may be nothing more than the border of an immense lagoon, resembling, on a larger scale, some of the small islands of Polynesia. Some one of these hypotheses must be adopted, unless we still believe that large or numerous rivers are concealed in channels connected with the openings which navigators have so imperfectly described. These channels may make the supposed shores of the continent turn out to be mere islands or peninsulas. Or we may suppose rivers of this kind to be like those of Madagascar, hid behind the marshes by which Edel's Land is encircled.

Methods of exploring.

In order to determine these questions, it has been proposed to send an expedition to penetrate the country from Spencer's Gulf For such an expedition, men of science and of courage ought to be selected. They ought to be provided with all sorts of implements and stores, and with different animals from the powers and instincts of which they may derive assistance. They should have oxen from Buenos Ayres, or the English settlements, mules from Senegal, and dromedaries from Africa or Arabia The oxen would traverse the woods and the thickets; the mules would walk securely among rugged rocks and hilly countries; the dromedaries would cross the sandy deserts. Thus the expedition would be prepared for any kind of territory that the interior might present. Dogs also should be taken to raise game, and to discover springs of water; and it has even been proposed to take pigs, for the sake of finding out esculent roots in the soil. When no kangaroos and game are to be found, the party would subsist on the flesh of their own flocks. They should be provided with a balloon, for spying at a distance any serious obstacles to their progress in particular directions, and for extending the range of observation which the eye would take of such level lands as are too wide to allow any heights beyond them to come within the compass of their view. It has been proposed that the vessels which take the persons and stores belonging to the land expedition, should leave that part of the coast where they have been disembarked, and after going to

such countries as could furnish them with fresh stores, should repair to different stations on the coast. This land expedition is recommended, in the first instance, to direct its course for the Gulf of Carpentaria. It will probably find in this passage, chains of mountains lying north and south, like the peninsulas situated on the coast, and will consequently pass along the intermediate valleys. If, contrary to all expectation, their progress should be arrested by chains in a transverse direction, they might turn east to the Bay of Inlets, or north-west to Dampier's Gulf, or south-west to Swan River. It seems inconceivable that all these routes should be equally intercepted by deserts, or impracticable mountains. The journey might be allowed a year or eighteen months, which would be only at the rate of four or five miles per day. On the most unfavourable supposition, the party could return to Spencer's Gulf. The author of the present work has discussed this project in conversation with the enlightened and indefatigable traveller M. Péron, who saw no insuperable obstacle to its practicability, except the existence of an immense ocean of sand occupying the whole interior of the continent, which to him appeared extremely probable. Yet, as the central deserts of Asia and of Southern Africa maintain flocks and tribes of shepherds in their oäses, our scientific nomades might in like manner find some stripes of verdure, and some fresh-water springs and lakes, especially after the close of the rainy season. The health of the travellers in this unknown soil, perhaps exhaling noxious vapours, might be protected by the constant habit of lying in hammocks suspended from the branches of trees. On the modifications of procedure that would occur in executing such an interesting plan, it is needless to speculate. Since these ideas were suggested, however, the two journies of Mr. Oxley from the British colony have afforded, as we have seen, a specimen of part of the interior, and perhaps of a large proportion of it. Yet it is unquestionably desirable that similar expeditions, with additional improvements, should be undertaken from various other parts of the extensive coast of New Holland.

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Table of Geographical Positions in New Holland, and the adjoining Islands.

Places.	South Latitude.	Long. East from Lond.	Authorities.
VAN DIEMEN'S ISLAND.	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Cape Pillar	43 14 0	147 21 4	Boullanger and Freycinet.
Cape Péron (Maria Island)	42 46 30	148 14 45	Idem.
St. Helen's Point . . .	41 20 30	148 37 45	Idem.
Cape Portland	40 42 25	148 5 15	Flinder's Chart.
Entrance of Port Dalrymple	41 3 30	147 11 0	Flinders and Freycinet.
Cape Lenoir (Hunter's Islands)	40 29 30	144 52 25	Freycinet.
South-west Cape . . .	43 33 40	146 4 15	D'Entrecasteaux
South Cape	43 39 0	146 54 25	Idem.
NEW SOUTH WALES.			
Wilson's Promontory .	39 10 30	146 40 25	Freycinet.
Cape Howe	37 27 0	150 5 15	Flinders.
Sydney Cove (Port Jackson)	33 55 0	151 25 0	Wentworth.
Cape Danger	28 8 0	153 52 15	Flinders.
Sandy Cape	24 40 0	153 15 15	Idem.
Cape Capricorn . . .	23 28 0	152 10 15	Cook.
Broad Sound (Bay of Inlets)	22 25 0	149 0 15	Idem.
Edgecombe Bay . . .	20 0 0	148 0 15	Idem.
Cape Flattery	14 56 0	145 20 15	Idem.
Cape York	10 40 0	142 20 15	Idem.
DE WITT'S LAND.			
Cape Diemen (or Léoben)	11 9 0	130 14 15	Freycinet, Boullanger, &c.
Cape Foureroy . . .	11 58 0	130 0 15	Idem.
Barthelemi islands . .	13 48 0	129 35 15	Idem.
Lacrosse islands . . .	14 44 0	128 20 15	Idem.
Cape Rhulière	13 52 0	127 17 15	Idem.
Bougainville Island . .	14 0 0	126 1 15	Idem.
Cape Voltaire	14 15 0	125 33 15	Idem.
Degerando Island . . .	15 22 0	124 8 15	Idem.
Cape Mollien (Adel Island)	15 27 0	123 4 15	Idem.
Caffarelli Island . . .	16 5 0	123 12 15	Idem.
Cape Berthollet . . .	17 10 0	122 5 15	Idem.
Cape Huygens	17 58 0	122 11 15	Idem.
Cape Villaret	18 19 0	121 56 15	Idem.
Cape Missiessy . . .	19 12 0	121 15 15	Idem.
Cape Larrey	19 47 0	119 9 15	Idem.
Depuch island	20 36 0	117 33 15	Idem.
Romarin island . . .	20 28 0	116 30 15	Idem.
Cape Malouet	20 45 0	115 25 15	Idem.
Cape Murat	21 37 0	114 18 15	Idem.

Table of Geographical Positions, &c.—continued.

Places.	South Latitude.	Long. East from Lond.	Authorities.
D'Endracht's and Leuwin's Land.	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Cape Cuvier	24 14 0	113 24 15	Freycinet, Boullanger, &c.
Dirk-Hartog's Road . .	25 30 0	113 2 15	Idem.
Red Point	27 42 0	114 0 15	Idem.
Houtman's Abrolhos, (southmost point) . .	29 13 0	114 20 15	Van Kenlen.
Swan river (mouth) . .	32 4 30	115 46 35	Idem.
Cape Naturaliste	33 27 30	114 50 45	Freycinet, Boullanger, &c.
Cape Hamelin . . .	34 14 0	115 0 15	Idem.
Flinder's Land, Baudin's Land, (terre Napoleon,) and Grant's Land.			
Cape Farewell	31 55 0	131 55 15	Idem.
Cape Malouet	32 10 20	133 5 15	Idem.
Talleyrand Island (Islands of St. Francis) . . .	32 35 0	133 9 15	Idem.
Murat Bay	32 6 0	133 37 15	Idem.
Cape Lavoisier . . .	32 31 0	133 50 5	Idem.
Cape Ambrose Paré . .	32 43 0	134 4 15	Idem.
Cape Corréa	33 36 0	134 48 15	Idem.
Cape Brune	34 48 0	134 11 15	Idem.
Cape Turenne	38 8 0	136 5 45	Idem.
Marengo Island (middle)	35 9 20	136 26 45	Idem.
Port Champagny (Lagrange Island) . . .	34 44 0	136 5 15	Idem.
Cape Condillac . . .	33 42 0	137 17 15	Idem.
Cape Lafontaine . . .	32 58 0	137 48 15	Idem.
Cape Berthier	35 15 30	136 52 15	Idem.
Cape Eliza	35 13 0	137 41 15	Idem.
Gulf St. Vincent (bottom)	34 12 0	138 5 15	Idem.
Cape d'Alembert . . .	38 31 30	137 59 45	Idem.
Cape Bedout (Isle Decres, or Kangaroo Island) .	35 56 0	136 34 55	Idem.
Cape Gantheaume (Idem)	36 4 15	137 30 15	Idem.
Cape Sané (Idem) . .	35 53 0	138 10 45	Idem.
Cape Fernat	36 4 0	139 28 45	Idem.
Cape Bernouilli . . .	37 0 0	139 42 25	Freycinet and Bernier.
Cape Lannes	37 38 30	140 13 15	Idem.
Cape Bolidor	38 1 0	140 52 15	Idem.
Cape Montaigne . . .	38 27 30	141 42 15	Idem.
Cape Volney	38 49 0	143 20 15	Boullanger, &c.
Cape Marengo	38 54 0	143 50 15	Idem.
Mouth of Port Philip .	38 24 0	144 48 15	Idem.
Western Port . . .	38 39 34	145 27 32	Faure.

BOOK LVII.

OCEANICA.

PART V.

New Zealand, New Guinea, and the intervening Islands.

BOOK LVII.

If we could venture on so great an innovation as to give New Holland the classical, and agreeable name of the Great Oceanida, those countries of intermediate size which lie between that continent and Polynesia would be very conveniently designated under the appellation of the Secondary central Oceanida. The uncouth jumble of ancient and modern names introduced by navigators, is adverse to any regular classification. The countries now to be described probably present, by their readiness of access, and their excellent climate, the most favourable situations for European colonies. But the most central of them, and particularly New Guinea, are inhabited by a warlike and inhospitable race. We shall begin at the south end of the chain, and proceed in a northerly course.

NEW ZEALAND.

New Zealand is a country which rises rapidly into importance, in proportion as it becomes more known. Its west coast was discovered in 1642 by Tasman, who describes the inhabitants as of a brownish yellow complexion with long black hair, and resembling the Japanese [a].

[a] Dalrymple's Historical Collection, II. 20. &c. Valentyn's Description of Banda.

It was a long time before any thing was added to Tasman's discovery. A French navigator, M. de Surville, doubled the North Cape, discovered Lauriston's Bay, and might have anticipated Cook in the honour of completing the discovery. The unfortunate Marion determined the position of Mascarin Peak more precisely than the great English navigator. The celebrated Captain Cook visited these regions in 1779, and found that the strait discovered by Tasman, and thought to separate an island on the north from a great Southern Continent, only separated two islands from each other. The southern island was called by the natives Tavi' *Poënammoo*, and the northern *Eahéino-mawe*, names of which Cook disputes the authenticity. Tavi seems to be the name of a lake, and Poënammo the word for the stone called green jade. Yet this island appears to be called Poënammo in the map drawn by a native, and published by Mr. Collins. Progress of discoveries.

D'Entrecasteaux fixed the position of Cape Maria de Diemen; but it was reserved for Vancouver, a pupil of the celebrated Cook, to complete the examination of the southern island, which was placed forty miles too far east in the first chart. Cook, not able to reach the termination of one of the arms of Dusky Bay, called it "Nobody knows what." His pupil reached it, and changed its name to "Somebody knows what." This seaman-like pleasantry, however, will not answer the purposes of geographical nomenclature.

The length of the northern island is 436 miles, and its medium breadth probably sixty miles. Its extent therefore, is about 26,160 square miles, or 16,742,400 acres. The Southern island, being 360 miles long, and at an average 100 broad, contains 36,000 square miles, or 23,040,000 acres. Extent.

The northern island, being the farthest from the pole, seems to possess greater natural advantages than the other. Its climate is temperate and moist, and the whole, except a few spots on the western side, appears well adapted to cultivation. The southern island is represented by Cook as mountainous, and apparently barren. But this report, Soil and climate.

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founded on a general and distant view, cannot be admitted as finally conclusive, especially as the country contains abundance of trees, and some of prodigious size. In the excursions which the English settlers have made into the interior of the northern island, the soil, though various, was found in general fertile. The landscape on every side displayed the richest verdure, a circumstance which led to the most flattering conclusions, both respecting the soil and the climate [b]. In this particular it is much superior to the territory round Port Jackson in New Holland, although in the same parallel of latitude. The latter is quite parched in summer, while every thing is green and flourishing in New Zealand, an advantage which it owes partly to its insular situation and comparatively small extent, and partly to the greater elevation of its mountains, which attract the dense clouds, and invite frequent refreshing showers. The observations made on the northern part of Eahéino-mawe, apply also to the north end of Poënamoo; for the vegetables which were sown in Charlotte Sound by Captain Cook were found on his return remarkably vigorous, having been rather strengthened than injured by the temperature of winter, though the species were such as would have perished if exposed to an English winter. No frost was seen here by Captain Cook, though he visited it in the beginning of June, which was near the depth of winter. The southern extremity has of course a colder climate. It is also remarkable for the prevalence of cloudy and stormy weather. Violent gales are frequent, and continually change their direction, a circumstance ascribed to the great height of the mountains [c]. Yet the climate was found quite genial in its influence on the health of the English visitors. In Cook's Strait, the north-west are the prevailing winds.

[b] Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand, performed in 1814 and 1815, by John Liddiard Nicholas, Esq. vol II. p. 231.

[c] Cook's Third Voyage, book I. chap. VIII.

The general face of the country, so far as it has hitherto been explored, is undulating: the hills rising with a varied ascent from inconsiderable eminences to lofty mountains. A continued chain of hills runs from the North Cape southward through the whole country, gradually swelling into mountains, the highest of which, according to Dr. Forster, is Mount Egmont, lying in latitude 39° 16′, and said to be the same in elevation as well as in general appearance as the Peak of Teneriff. It is covered with perpetual snow a great way down, and from calculation and comparisons respecting the snow line, he concluded its height to be 14,760 feet. Others are led by various considerations to assign to it an elevation of 10,000 feet.

Mountains.

The sides of the numerous coves about the Bay of Islands, in the north-east coast of Eahéino-mawe, where the English settlement is fixed, are for the most part composed of soft lamellated stones, probably steatite. In some of them hard or dark brown veins, with traces of iron, are perceived. From the softness of these rocks they are found to exhibit frequent curious perforations, which form picturesque arches, delighting the view of the mariner as he coasts the country. Huge masses of quartz rock are found in the interior, and the rocks have frequent cavities, lined with crystallizations. At North Cape there are hard nodules imbedded in clay. These are most probably ironstone. Pieces of pumice stone were found; and this substance is used by the natives for polishing their spears and other instruments of war. Obsidian, a volcanic glassy substance, was also met with. The axes of the natives are generally of green jade. Some are of porphyry. The ochry appearance of some of the rivulets indicates the existence of iron-ore. A powdery ore of manganese is found, and employed by the natives in the barbarous practice of tattooing their faces. About Cook's Strait Mr. Anderson found the rocks to consist of horizontal strata of yellow sandstone, crossed by veins of quartz. The soil was a yellowish marl. Forster says that the southern island has a

Rocks and minerals.

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thin layer of black earth, under which lies a rock of pale yellow nephritic jade, intersected by quartz veins [d]. There were also argillaceous basalt, marble, jasper, granite composed of black mica and white quartz [e], and various volcanic matters [f]. These evidences of subterraneous fire are confirmed by the frequency of earthquakes [g].

Rivers.

The mountains abound in springs. Each rock seems to be furnished with its provision of fresh water. The rivers, though they have short courses, are broad and deep, and sometimes descend in the form of magnificent cascades [h]. One of these, in Dusky Bay, is thirty feet in diameter, and has a fall of 900.

Vegetation.

This abundance of water, so favourably contrasted with the aridity of New Holland, is propitious to vegetation, and some of the productions of the country are extremely valuable. The mountains which give origin to the river Thames, on the east side of the northern island, produce abundance of timber fit for ship-building. The size of the trees strikes every traveller with admiration. Various pines, quite different from those known in Europe, soar to a height far exceeding those of Norway. There are also various trees of inferior growth, of a fine grain, susceptible of a high polish, and admirably adapted for ornamental cabinet work. There is a tree called *hcnow*, from which the natives obtain a black dye; a species of cork-tree; and many others, both beautiful and useful, which have not yet been classified by scientific botanists. The supple-jack is met with in all the woods, often fifty feet long, obstructing the progress of the passenger. The tea myrtle also grows here, resembling that of New Holland, which is a sort of *Philadelphus* or *Melalcuca scoparia*. A different species grows about Dusky Bay, which was used by the crew of the ship Endeavour

[d] Forster's Observations, p. 10, (in German.)
[e] Voyage de Marion et Crozet. [f] Parkinson's Journal, p. 89.
[g] Forster's Voyage, I. p. 150, (German.) Collin's Account, I. p. 392.
[h] Forster's Observations, p. 42. Voyage I. p. 153.

as a substitute for tea. From the leaves of a tree resembling the American spruce fir a very wholesome liquor was brewed. This seems to have been the *Dacrydium cupressinum*, the leaves of which are a good antidote to scurvy. There are no native acido-dulces fruits which a European can eat, though some coarse kinds which are relished by the natives. The root of a low common looking fern call- *Acrostichum furcatum*, supplies the natives with their ordinary food. There is likewise an arborescent fern, the root of which is dressed like potatoes and eaten, and the trunk of this same tree contains a tender esculent pulp, which yields a juice of a red colour. Herbaceous species are prevented from springing by the exuberance and closeness of the forests. The following, however, among others, are found: wild celery, canary-grass, wild parsley, plantain-grass, a species of rye-grass, some flags, and the *Phormium tenax*. This last is a most valuable flax; it has excited a great interest in Europe; has been transplanted by the curious; is found to succeed in the climate of France; and considered as most probably an important accession to the riches of this part of the world. Neither palms nor bread-fruit trees exist in this country; the climate probably does not suit them. From Europeans the New Zealanders have got potatoes, *coomeras* or sweet potatoes, cabbage, turnips, and a species of yam called *tacca*. Their only grain is maize, which they have also obtained from European navigators. From the same source they have got the pumpkin, or gourd, which they cultivate for the sake of the drinking vessels into which they convert it.

New Zealand flax.

The zoology of New Zealand is extremely limited in quadrupeds. The most conspicuous species is the dog. There is a large variety which runs about in a wild state, and a smaller one domesticated. The former howls when it comes in sight of men. It offers no injury to the inhabitants, who prize it highly for its flesh, which they reckon a delicious food, and for the hide and bones, which they convert to various purposes of ornamental device. In the class of *mammalia* they have also the rat; mall bat resemb-

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ling the New York bat of Pennant[i]; the sea-bear, or *Phoca ursina*; and the *Phoca leonina*, or leonine seal, called by Lord Anson the sea lion. There seems to be a large animal of the lizard kind, which, according to the reports of the natives, sometimes destroys children in the interior. New Zealand is the native place of some birds which are singular for the melody of their song as well as for the gaiety of their plumage. One called the *poe* has beautiful tufts of white feathers, and a song more charming than that of the finest European species. There are a few species of the parrot kind, wild ducks, and a large black duck peculiar to the country. From the feathers found lining some of the garments of the chiefs, somewhat smaller than those of the *emu*, it is probable that there is also a species of the cassowary, though not hitherto seen by Europeans[k]. Several aquatic birds, and in general the same species of sea fowl which frequent other parts of the South Sea, such as the albatross and penguin, abound on the shores of New Zealand. Butterflies, beetles, common flies, and a few musquitoes, are among the insects, a class of animals which does not appear to be very abundant. There is a small sand-fly which proves troublesome by settling about the instep and ancles, and biting people while warm in bed. No poisonous serpents have been found. The coasts are visited by immense shoals of fish, and in great variety, making ample amends for the paucity of land animals. Those in common use among the natives are snappers, bream, the benicooto, the parrot-fish, herrings, flounders, and an inferior sort of salmon. Mackarel is also found, and lobsters; and there are beds of cockles, muscles, and other shell fish in some of the flats about the coves. The muscles are of immense size, and much relished by the natives.

Inhabitants.

The native inhabitants of New Zealand belong to the same race with the Otaheitans, the people of the Friendly

[i] Synopsis of Quadrupeds, No. 283.

[k] Nicholas, vol. II. p. 255.

Islands, and the other Polynesians. They have tawny complexions somewhat darker than the Spaniards; a few among them are fair. In their persons they are generally above the middle stature. Some are six feet or upwards, and their limbs are remarkable for perfect symmetry and great muscular strength. Their countenances are, with few exceptions, pleasing and intelligent, without those indications of ferocity which some of their actions would lead us to anticipate. We know but little of their diseases, except that they are liable to leprosy and visceral inflammations, and that ophthalmia is very common among them.

Political and civil state.

The northern island is said to be divided into eight districts, governed by their respective chiefs, called *areekees* or kings, and other inferior chiefs, who, under the areekees, rule over smaller subdivisions. The power of the areekee is not absolute, and the inferior chiefs make frequent wars on one another without consulting him. In their political condition as well as in some of their usages, these people bear a remarkable resemblance to the Battas in the island of Sumatra. Society is divided into two distinct ranks, the one consisting of the chiefs and all their kin, who are called *rungatcedas*, and the common people, who are called *cookies*. The former are extremely tenacious of their dignity. They disdain several kinds of work, yet one of them was not ashamed to supplicate an English visitor with continued importunity to "give him a nail," after his request had been repeatedly complied with[l]. A chief, on board a British ship, will work like a common sailor, or will serve at table, or sweep the cabin, if he is assured that these labours are not derogatory to his dignity; because he has not yet learned the European feelings, and perhaps still more, because he is acute enough to see the superiority of the European character, and reasonable enough to recognize it in his actions, reserving his claims of rank for the society of his compatriots. It is a common thing for a chief to display his dignity in his village by sitting on the top of a house[m]. The

[l] Nicholas.

[m] Idem.

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cookies, however, though considered as far beneath the rungateedas, are treated with gentleness and attention.

Ingenuity.

The New Zealanders have some good domestic habits, and are not without ingenuity in a few arts. Having no metallic pots for boiling their food, they contrive to cook their fern root, and their potatoes, by means of two hollow stones, in which they first put their roots, surrounded by a few moist leaves of some well-flavoured plant, and then applying the hollow sides of the stones to one another, heat them thoroughly for a due length of time, at the end of which they are well stewed and palatable food. Of the fibres of the *Phormium tenax* they make a kind of cloth or matting, which they dye black with the bark of a tree called *Enou*. They make wooden vessels and spears, which last are neatly tipped with bone. They cultivate their fields with great neatness. Their canoes are made of boards, well joined and held together by strong osiers; some of them are fifty feet long. The large ones carry thirty men or more. They are often ornamented with a head, well carved and expressive of warlike ferocity. They are expert rowers, keeping time with beautiful exactness, not only in the same canoe, but through the whole of a small squadron. Their garments are made of matting and feathers. Some of them are worked with the utmost nicety. One of their finest cloaks requires more than a year to complete it. Their huts are constructed of sticks and reeds interwoven with each other, but in a manner so imperfect and insufficient as to have a wretched appearance; forming a great contrast to the neatness of the gardens. They have no windows, and the door is so low and narrow that they are obliged to squeeze themselves in and out in a crawling posture. The interior is sufficiently roomy, being fourteen feet long and eight broad[n]. From motives of superstition they make a point of eating only in the open air, or under a shed adjoining their habitation. Some of their villages are agreeably situated, and have a pleasing exterior. The hut of the chief is often larger

[n] Nicholas, vol. I. p. 109.

than the rest, without being more convenient, or having a larger door. In some cases it is distinguished by posts with rude ornamental carvings. There is also a seat or throne for the chief or king. The villages are protected by strong pallisades, walls of wicker-work, embankments, and ditches. The store-houses, in which their provisions and arms are contained, are built with greater regard to method and neatness than their dwellings, having spacious doors, verandas, and orifices for admitting free air [o]. The natives of this country who have visited New Holland in the English ships, have beheld the natives of that continent with pity and contempt, for the abject lives which they lead,—their idleness, improvidence, and misery. Their dress consists of mats made from the *Phormium tenax*, often fancifully worked round with variegated borders, and decorated otherwise with curious art. These are fixed round the middle like the Scotch kilt. The chiefs are distinguished by wearing, over their shoulders, a cloak made of various furs, and shaped not unlike the Spanish cloak. The chiefs disfigure their whole countenances by tattooing them in a most hideous manner, of which no conception can be formed without the aid of such figures as are given in the works of Mr. Savage and Mr. Nicholas. They also besmear them with red ochre. They sometimes wear, as appendages to the ears, the teeth of the enemies whom they have slain in battle. Sometimes they hang from their breasts pieces of green jade, carved into rude representations of the human form. In their personal habits, however, they are dirty in the extreme, and from the highest to the lowest allow their bodies to swarm with vermin [p].

General character.

In conversation the New Zealanders are animated, humorous, and witty. Towards their relations and children they are tenderly affectionate. When they see a relation after a long absence, for example, one who has been be-

[o] See Mr. Nicholas's Description of the Town of Wycmattee, vol. I. p 233—312.

[p] Nicholas's Narrative, vol. II. p. 223, 224.

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yond seas, or even hear accounts of one still at a distance, they howl aloud with the keenest sensibility. Naturally spirited and ingenious, they are curious and ambitiously docile in matters of art. A chief who beheld the rope-making, and other manufactures of the English at Port Jackson, wept with mortification at the rude state of the arts in his own country. The labours of the field are chiefly devolved on the women. The fathers take the charge of the children; they make excellent nurses, and fondle their infants with the liveliest tenderness and delight. Polygamy is practised. One wife is at the head of the establishment, the others rank as her inferiors and servants.

Religion.

In religion the New Zealanders are moderate polytheists, their catalogue of divinities being less extravagant than that of many other barbarians. They believe in a supreme Deity—in a god of anger and death—a deity who makes land under the sea, and fastens it by a hook to a large rock ready to be hawled up—a god to hawl up the land: this last, at the same time, superintends human diseases, and gives life. They have also a god of tears and sorrow; but their mythology is imperfectly known. They believe in the creation of man, and have a tradition of the first woman being formed of a rib taken from the man. They have a story of the moon having descended to the earth, and carried off a man who continues fixed on its surface. Their children, when born, are sprinkled with water by the Tohunga or priest; a ceremony, without which they believe it would either be doomed to death, or grow up with a most perverse disposition. They are much in the habit of consecrating persons, places, and things, and call the spell thus imposed *taboo*. When a person labours under a severe malady, as soon as they believe that it is the intention of the god to deprive him of life, they place him under the *taboo*, deny him all food, and leave him to a necessary death, in compliance with the divine mandate. They inter the bodies of the dead with ceremonies which they do not allow Europeans to see. They

believe that, on the third day after the burial, the heart is separated from the body, and that the separation is announced by a gentle breeze to an Etooa, or inferior deity, who bends over the grave, and carries off the heart to the clouds.

Suicide.

Women often commit suicide by hanging themselves when their husbands die. The keen feelings of this people make them prone to suicide on various occasions of disappointment. A woman will hang herself immediately after receiving a beating from her husband [q]. The inhabitants of the Bay of Islands are said to be exempt from this malady [r]. The manners, no doubt, differ considerably in different tribes and places.

No other mode of reckoning periods of time has been observed among them, than by the changes of the moon, which they count up to 100, and by these epochs they calculate their age and the events that occur among them.

Warlike habits.

The New Zealanders live in a state of habitual warfare. The chiefs and tribes are respectively jealous of their rights, and go to war when these are slightly invaded. Sometimes, when the two hostile armies meet, a parley takes place, and peace is concluded. On such occasions a spirit of fairness and reason is manifested. It is not, in general, so much from predatory principles, as from high spirit and irritability, that their violent quarrels originate. Each tribe entreated Captain Cook to destroy its antagonists. Even when at peace they discover, in their intercourse with the English, a deep jealousy of each other; envying any one whom they suppose more highly favoured than themselves, and continually labouring to excite prejudices against one another's characters and intentions. Their wars are conducted with the utmost ferocity. They have short spears, which they throw, like javelins, from a distance; long ones, which they use as lances; and broad, thick, sharp-edged, tools, called *patoo patoo*, made of

[q] Collins, vol. I. p. 521. (in English.)

[r] Savage's Account, &c.

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stone, about fourteen inches long, with which they strike one another in close combat, being able to cleave the skull by a single blow. Like the Battas, they devour the bodies of their enemies, and entertain the extravagant belief that the soul of a man thus devoured is doomed to eternal fire. It is purely from vengeance, and not at all from an appetite for human flesh, that they indulge in this shocking practice.

Massacres committed on Europeans.

They have committed some frightful massacres on their European visitors, but these do not appear to have been so much instigated by cupidity, as by revenge for some affront or injury received. The unfortunate Marion had lived on terms of intimacy with the chief Tacoory, when the latter, under the pretext of giving him an entertainment, massacred him with all his attendants; and the French who came to revenge the outrage, saw the disgusting proofs of the savages having eaten and gnawed the palpitating limbs of those whom a few hours before they embraced with every demonstration of attachment. The English have suffered from similar acts of perfidy. The last was in the case of the ship Boyd, in 1809, the crew of which, to the number of seventy, was massacred by the chief named George, in revenge for some ill treatment received from the commander, Captain Thomson, who had brought him back as a passenger from Port Jackson, on condition of working his passage. The chief being taken sick, and unable to work to the Captain's satisfaction, was flogged and taunted by the latter, and, before being put on shore, was stripped of every thing English he had about him. Totally insensible to his own infamous conduct, the Captain went on shore, and left his ship unprotected, when the determined vengeance of the savages made a short and dreadful catastrophe in the annihilation of the whole crew, with the exception of four, one of whom was the cabin boy, who had paid some kind attention to the chief during the passage. The Captain of a vessel who afterwards came to the coast, left a written warning with one of the natives, to be shown to the commander of every ship which he might afterwards meet with, and in this de-

cument it was stated, from some mistake or misinformation, that a chief called Tippahee, who had formerly been well treated at Port Jackson, was the perpetrator. The crew of a whale ship who found this paper, inflicted a barbarous and misplaced vengeance, by murdering the whole people of Tippahee, who inhabited a small island, this chief himself and a few others having narrowly escaped in a boat.—We are not altogether certain what affronts may, on other occasions, have incited these high minded and irritable people to acts of atrocious and perfidious cruelty. In their conduct they often evince sentiments of honourable integrity and fidelity, where reliance is placed on them by persons who have treated them well. The English sailors have been too much in the practice of teazing and insulting them, from a wantonness more degrading than their own excessive resentments, and they have invaded their property, and carried off their crops without scruple, as if no laws of honesty and delicacy were binding towards beings so strange and so different from themselves. The governor of New South Wales has very laudably taken the natives under his protection against all such lawless acts; the people begin to learn to make distinctions in the characters of Europeans, as well as among themselves, and to cultivate a good understanding, and to seek redress of occasional grievances, through the medium of the small missionary settlement which has been formed in their country. They certainly possess qualities which may prove a good foundation for the formation of a respectable character by instruction. A New Zealand mother will risk her own life for the sake of her child. Their songs and music are superior to those of the Otaheitans. Their songs are sung in parts, and the companies join in full chorus. Their airs resemble the chantings of an English church. The inhabitants of East Cape are the bards of the country, by whom all their songs are composed. The subjects of them are generally taken from those scenes of violence with which the natives are so familar, sometimes

Causes and remedy of these atrocities.

Their good qualities.

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from the phenomena of storms, the business of rural cultivation, or other common exercises and enjoyments.

Adjoining islands.

Snares Island, Lord Aukland's Group, and Macquarrie Island, to the south of New Zealand, show the continuation of the same chain of mountains under water, by which that country is pervaded.

There is another well marked chain to the east of New Zealand, and nearly parallel to it, formed of the Bristol, Penantipodes, Bounty, and Chatham Islands.

Chatham Island.

CHATHAM ISLAND, which is the largest, was discovered by Broughton. It is about thirty-three miles long. The surface has a gradual rise, so as to form pleasant looking hills in the interior. It seems to contain one of those lagoons which occur so frequently in the low islands of this ocean.

Its productions.

Vegetation, according to Broughton, is powerful in this island, but the trees are only of middling height. For a certain way up the trunk they are naked, and no brush-wood grows among them. There is one tree similar to the bay, and another jointed like the vine. The inhabitants were observed to use much thread and cord made of a fine hemp, which undoubtedly is of the growth of the island.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants are of middling stature, stout and well proportioned. They have dark-brown complexions and expressive features. The hair of their heads and beards is black; no tattooing was observed about any part of their bodies. Their dress consisted of a seal skin, and a curiously wrought mat. The birds are of the same species which are seen at Dusky Bay in New Zealand, and were remarked to be, like them, wonderfully familiar, and not the least afraid of men, an evidence that they suffer no molestation.

Norfolk Island.

NORFOLK ISLAND is situated to the north-west of New Zealand, nearly half way between it and New Caledonia. Here the English had at one time a flourishing colony, but it has been removed to Van Diemen's Island. Norfolk Island labours under the disadvantage of having no good

harbour. It is about fourteen miles in circumference. The coral reefs extend nearly twenty miles in a southerly direction. The basis of this island consists of a yellowish chalk common to it with New Zealand. This is covered with a great thickness of black earth. Vegetation is vigorous and productive. New Zealand flax grows better than in its native country. The pine wood is heavier than that of New Caledonia, but softer than that of New Zealand. Cabbage palms, wild sorrel, and sea fennel, are in great abundance. The English settlers introduced the grains and domestic animals of Europe.

NEW CALEDONIA.

Sailing farther north we find NEW CALEDONIA, a pretty large island, being 220 or 250 miles long and fifty broad. But on the south and the west it is rendered dangerous of approach, by a formidable chain of reefs, extending 270 miles beyond the island to the south and to the north-west[s].

Mountains. Rocks.

New Caledonia seems to have a mountain chain extending over its whole length, becoming gradually higher towards the south-east, till it reaches an elevation of 3200 feet above the level of the sea. The principal rocks are quartz, mica, steatite of different degrees of hardness, green schorl, and granite, and they contain a mine of specular iron ore. Basaltic pillars have been observed in some places. Its mountains contain, in all probability, rich metallic veins.

Vegetation.

The bread-fruit tree of this island is very similar to that of the Polynesian islands. Beautiful avenues are formed of the cultivated banana[t]. Sugar cane and arum are also cultivated here. The sides of some of the valleys are covered with cocoa. Among the other vegetable species are the tree called *Commersonia echinata*, which grows in great abundance in the Moluccas; the *Hibiscus tiliaceus*, the young pods of which are eaten by the inhabitants; the *Dolichos tuberosus*, the roots of which are roasted and eaten;

[s] Labillardière, Voyage à la Recherche de La Perouse, I. 199, &c.

[t] Idem, vol. II. p. 36. Atlas, pl. 41.

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the *Diacophyllum verticillatum*, a new genus, allied to the dracontia, and which grows on the tops of the mountains[u]; the *hypoxis*, the roots of which are eaten by the New Caledonians, springs up spontaneously in the forests. The *antholoma*, one of the most beautiful of shrubs, forming a new genus, grows on the high grounds[x].

Animals.

Even dogs and pigs were unknown in this island before the arrival of Europeans. The most common birds are a peculiar sort of magpie, large pigeons, and Caledonian ravens. A spider called *nookee* forms threads so strong as to offer a sensible resistance before breaking when pulled. The animal constitutes part of the people's food.

Harbours.

Among the moorings of the island we may mention Balada Haven and Deceitful Haven, where d'Entrecasteaux says he could not enter, but which the English navigator Kent, has described as a spacious and excellent port, situated behind the frightful chain of reefs which lines the west coast.

Inhabitants.

A travelling naturalist has lately found a singular correspondence in figure between the aborigines of Van Diemen's Island and those of New Caledonia. Their hair is nearly woolly, and the surface of their bodies greasy. Some have the thick lips of the African negro[y]. Light and nimble, they climb trees with as much facility as they walk along level ground. Cook praises the mildness of their character, and the chastity of their females[z]. D'Entrecasteaux and Labillardière describe them as equally cruel, perfidious, and thievish, with the other islanders of the Great Ocean[a]. The women were hired for a nail, and the size of the nail was in proportion to the beauty of the person. Ignorant of the use of the bow, they are armed with darts and clubs, which they manufacture with much pains; they also make use of slings. It turns out on re-

[u] Forster, Voyage, t. II. p. 327.

[x] Idem, ibid. p. 240, and Atlas, pl. 12.

[y] Labillardière, Voyage, II. p. 186, Forster, Voyage, II. p. 802.

[z] Cook's Second Voyage.

[a] Rossel, Voyage de d'Entrecasteaux, II. p. 351, &c.

cent and attentive observation that they are cannibals from taste. They tasted with an air of luxurious pleasure the muscular parts of the human body, and ate a slice of the flesh of a child [b]. Their common food consists of shell-fish, and other fish with roots. They also eat the spider already mentioned, and the greenish mealy soap-stone. The only dress of the females is a girdle of fibrous bark; several of the men encircle their heads with a fillet of sowed net-work, or a head dress made of leaves and the hair of the vampire bat. They build walls on the mountains, to confine the soil, in the same manner as is done in so many countries, forming the arable surface into a succession of terraces. Yet the soil is generally poor. Their houses are in the form of bee-hives, and the door-posts are of carved planks. Their harsh and croaking language seems to be totally different from that of Polynesia. Cannibals.

The Isle of Pines, on the south of New Caledonia, produces stately cedars, the trunks of which furnish columns exceeding one hundred feet in height. The Loyalty and Beauprés Islands form a little archipelago to the east. The great reefs by which New Caledonia is skirted on the west, and which extend 250 miles in a northerly direction, present the navigator with the prospect of inevitable ruin, in case the winds and currents should carry him among them. All the way between this island and New Holland, the sea abounds with coral banks, some of which are larger and more dangerous than others [c]. Captain Flinders, who was shipwrecked on one of them, is of opinion that the two frigates of La Perouse met their fate on one of these banks. Isle of Pines, &c.

To the north and east of New Caledonia we have an important archipelago, for the extent and fertility of the islands of which it is composed. Fernandez de Quiros, New Hebrides.

[b] Labillardière, Voyage II. p. 193—201, &c.

[c] Flinders, Annales des Voyages, vol. X. p. 88.

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who discovered the mainland in 1606, gave it the name of Australia del Espirito Santo. A hundred and sixty-two years after this, M. de Bougainville added to it some islands, to which he gave the elegant name of the Great Cyclades. After an interval of six years, came Captain Cook, and completed the discovery of the leading islands. Following the principle of a submarine chain of mountains, he seems to have reached its southern extremity. Captain Bligh found a continuation to the north, consisting of islands which were probably seen by Quiros. Captain Cook proposed to give that archipelago, as a whole, the name of the New Hebrides, a proposal strongly objected to by Fleurieu, who wished to retain a memorial of the first discovery in the original name of the Archipelago, that of the Holy Ghost [d].

Island of Tanna

The most southerly group of this archipelago is detached from the rest of the chain, and consists of five islands, which, with the exception of Immer, are high and have no coral reefs. Tanna, the only one which has been minutely examined, contains a very active volcano. Messrs. Forster and Sparrmann made an unsuccessful attempt to reach that burning mountain, which is not one of the highest on the island. The volcano itself shook, and the ashes which it spouted forth darkened the atmosphere. The rain, which fell at the time, was a heterogeneous mixture of water, sand, and earth, and might be called a shower of slime [e]. These subterranean fires seem to contribute much to that exuberance of vegetation by which the island is distinguished. Several plants attain here twice the height that they have in other countries, broader leaves and a stronger perfume. In several places sulphureous vapours are exhaled. In others the springs are tepid. Tanna has also strata of clay and aluminous earth, with blocks of chalk and of tripoli. It abounds in sulphur, and affords traces of copper. The scenery of Tanna is pleasanter and

[d] Voyage de Marchand, tom. V.

[e] Forster's Voyage, II. p. 212.

more elegant than that of Otaheite, as the mountains do not shoot up abruptly from the middle of a narrow plain, but are preceded by several ranges of hills separated from one another by wide valleys. Here are found bananas, sugar canes, potatoes, and several sorts of fruit trees. The English found here the pigeon which transports the seeds of the nutmeg in the Molucca Islands. In the crop of one of them, an oblong nutmeg was found. The natives shewed them specimens of that fruit still surrounded by the mace. It cannot, therefore, be doubted that a variety of the nutmeg grows on these islands, though none were found within the narrow limits which the English were allowed to traverse[f].

Productions.

The natives resemble the people of New Holland more than those of the Friendly Islands. They are of a brownish-black colour, of moderate stature, but muscular and vigorous. Their beards are strong, black, and curled. The hair of their heads is thick and bristly; their features are expressive and open; and every thing about them has a masculine and warrior-like air. The singularity of their ornaments, the little peg with which the tip of the nose is pierced, the cloth which they wear around their loins, in such a style as rather to outrage decency than to preserve it, and the use of a coarse pigment made of ochre and chalk, are so many marks of an affinity to the natives of New Caledonia, New Guinea, and Solomon's Archipelago. On the other hand, these islanders seem to have derived their arts from the same origin with the Polynesians. Their bows, made of the best elastic wood, their slings, their clubs, and their darts, with which they can pierce a plank four inches thick, often remind one of the arms used in the Friendly Islands. The language of Tanna, and that of Erromango, to the north of it, are different; and neither of them has any resemblance to the general language of Polynesia[g].

Inhabitants.

[f] Cook's Second Voyage, Book III. ch. 4—6. Forster, II. 262.

[g] Forster's Voyage, II. p. 225.

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Women.

The women of the New Hebrides, being treated as slaves, soon lose the few attractions which nature has conferred upon them. They are weak and puny. Several of the young girls, according to Dr. Forster, had pleasant features, and a smile which became more pleasing in proportion as their timidity was dissipated. They had handsome forms, delicately turned arms, and full and round bosoms; their clothing reached to the knees. Their curled hair waved loosely on their heads, or was fastened in a tress; and the green banana leaf, which they generally wore in their hair, formed a handsome contrast with its blackness. They repelled with modesty the advances of the seamen.

Sandwich Island.

Cook also discovered Sandwich Island, which is about seventy miles in circumference, and has an aspect equally fertile as the preceding two. The woods were adorned with tints of lively verdure, and contained a profusion of cocoas. The mountains have a considerable elevation in the interior, and exhibit, at their feet, many lower districts covered with wood, intermingled with cultivated fields arrayed in the same golden tints with the corn fields of Europe. It was considered as a very promising island for colonization.

Api, Paoom, &c.

The islands of Api and Paoom were not minutely examined. Ambrym attracted attention by a volcano in it, which impetuously emitted columns of whitish smoke. It seemed to be fruitful and well cultivated [h].

Whitsuntide Island, Aurora Island, &c.

In Whitsuntide Island several plantations were seen, and many fires. The more majestic island of Aurora is adorned with picturesque forests, diversified by fine waterfalls. The unpleasant name of Leper Island, given by Bougainville to a small one in this neighbourhood, is not founded on any peculiarity attached to it. A white leprosy exists in every part of Oceanica.

The two large islands of Mallicolo and Spirito Santo form a separate chain, lying more westerly than that which we have now traced.

[h] Cook's Second Voyage, III. p. 241. Forster's Voyage, II. p. 180.

The natives described Mallicolo to Quiros as a great country, although it does not exceed fifty miles in length. The Spaniards called it Manicola. It is well wooded and well watered, and appears to possess a fertile soil. Pigs and poultry were the only domestic animals. Cook enriched it with the addition of the dog. Mallicolo.

The people of Mallicolo might, from their looks, almost be regarded as a kind of apes. Their appearance is hideous, and altogether different from that of the neighbouring nations. The men are brown-coloured: their general height does not exceed five feet four inches: their limbs are, in many instances, ill proportioned: the arms and legs are long and lean, the head lengthened, and the countenance flattened. To these characters are to be added a broad flat nose, projecting cheek-bones, the forehead narrow and compressed backwards, as it is in the lower animals. Their hair is curled, but not woolly like that of the African negro[1]. Inhabitants.

This race exactly coincides in character with the monkey-looking tribe which Capt. Flinders found at Glasshouse Bay. Their dialect contains those hissing and clucking sounds, and those strange combinations of consonants which occur in the African idioms, setting the organs of Europeans at complete defiance. Russian and German words they pronounce easily. The girdle which they wear round the body, being tight drawn, gives them the appearance of gigantic ants, while the cloth wrapped close under for the sake of decency, produces an opposite effect. They use poisoned arrows, by which speedy death is inflicted on the wounded. It is the mark of weakness to have recourse to treachery. Language.

Terra del Spirito Santo, the largest and most westerly of the whole archipelago, is sixty miles long, thirty-three broad, and more than a hundred and sixty in circumference. The shores, especially on the west side, are uncommonly Terra del Spirito Santo.

[1] Forster's Observations, p. 240. Ditto, Voyage, II. p. 182.

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high, forming a continued chain of mountains, which, in some places, rise directly from the margin of the sea. But in general the island is bordered by beautiful wooded hills, open valleys, and varied plantations. The islands which lie along the southern and eastern coasts probably form bays and harbours equally well sheltered with the great bay of St. James and St. Philip, which is on the east side. Here Quiros and Cook anchored, in the harbour of Vera Cruz, near the River Jordan. The worthy Spaniard wished to found, in this place, the city of New Jerusalem; but, before the first hut was finished, a bloody contest with the natives, and a failure of provisions, obliged him to return to America[k].

Bays and Harbours.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants, more handsome and more vigorous than those of Mallicolo, are black, and their hair is either woolly or much curled. Some of their words are the same that are spoken in the Friendly and Society Islands. Quiros saw here men of different colours; some mulattos, some blacks, and some white, with red hair. These last were probably inhabitants of the island of Erromano[l]. Forster justly laments the hurry with which this country has been surveyed. This was increased by an unlucky occurrence. In leaving Mallicolo a fish had been taken which seems to have been a *Sparus erythrinus*. All who ate of it were seized with gripes, acute pains, and vertigo. Their bodies were covered with phlegmons, and they were affected with a deadly languor. A dog and a pig, however, were the only individuals to whom it proved fatal. Quiros met with the same accident. Some future navigator examining this island with greater leisure, will perhaps find in it the orange-tree, the aloe, the nutmeg, the pepper-plant, the ebony, the citron, the pearl, and other valued productions: perhaps even the mines of the precious metals mentioned by Quiros.

Poisonous fish.

Vegetable productions.

[k] Quiros's Account, written by himself, in the Viajero Universal, t. XVII. p. 197.

[l] Forster, Voyage, II. p. 201.

This navigator, however, writes with much candour; he only extols the rich and varied vegetation, the beautiful forests, free from the incumbrance of trailing shrubs, and the fresh and salubrious waters[m]. If, in his Fifty Memoirs presented to the court of Spain, the silver mines figured as a conspicuous article, this was a harmless artifice, intended to produce, in the gross minds of the great, an interest in their noble acquisitions.

Islands seen by Quiros.

Ten or twelve islands remain to be found again which were discovered by Quiros, after quitting the island of Taumaco, and before arriving at Terra del Spirito Santo. But it is not easy to convert his vague calculations of longitude into actual degrees. The discussion of the different explanations of them which have been given, and which might be given, would require a long memoir, or rather a monographic treatise. If Rotumah island is Taumaco, the islands of Tucopia, San Marcos, Vergel, and others, will correspond tolerably well to Pandora, Cherry, and Barvel islands, and Banks's Group, lately discovered by Captain Edwards, on the north-east of Terra del Spirito Santo[n]. The description of Pitt's Island, which is high and wooded, corresponds to that of the "Gate of Belen." Coming south to 14° 30′ of latitude, Quiros discovered an island which he called Nuestra Sennora do Luz; and, immediately after, he saw to the south, the south-east, and the west, several high and extensive lands, in one of which he discovered the Bay of St. Philip and St. James[o]. We can easily see the position in which every navigator must find himself, who, after having passed the Pic d'Etoile, enters the channel surrounded on the one hand by the islands of Terra del Spirito Santo and Mallicolo, and on the other, by Aurora and Whitsuntide islands. Another account, which says nothing of Nuestra Sennora, or Pic d' Etoile, makes up for the defect by an express proof that the Great

[m] Quiros, in the Viajero Universal, t. XXVII. p. 203.

[n] Burney's History of Discoveries, II. p. 326.

[o] Account of Quiros, according to Figuerva, in Dalrymple, I. p. 131.

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Cyclades of Bougainville had been seen and named by this navigator; for he found at seventeen degrees of latitude, and only seven leagues from Terra del Spirito Santo, the two islands of Cordova and Clementina, which seem to be the same as Aurora and Whitsuntide islands[p]. In short, the island of Belen, and that which is called the Pillar of Saragossa, towards which the north-east wind drove the fleet, after leaving the Bay of St. Philip, must belong to a chain which connects the New Hebrides with Solomon's Islands.

Solomon's Islands, and the Islands of Santa Cruz.

We now come to a country the discovery of which, in its different parts, has afforded much exercise to the patience of navigators. The only description that can be given of Solomon's Islands, and the archipelago of Santa Cruz, is a history of the attempts made to recognize and examine them.

Mendana's Discoveries.

The Spanish navigator Mendana, who was sent out to discover Terra Australis, found, in 1568, a series of islands which he called Ylas de Solomon, which he placed between the fifth and the ninth degrees of south latitude; but his observations of the longitude were so vague and inaccurate, that neither he himself nor any other navigator, for a long time after, could succeed in finding the islands. He seems to have believed, from the estimates which he made, that he was 1450 marine leagues from Lima. But the Spaniards wished to conceal the discovery, for fear of inducing other nations to form settlements in these countries; and their authors, either in obedience to orders or from ignorance, placed these islands sometimes 800 and sometimes 1500 leagues west from Peru[q]. Mendana gave the name of Isabella to the largest island, lying south-east and north-west. Guadalcanal is a long island, situated to the south of the preceding, and behind some small islands, among which is Sesarga, which contains a volcano. The

[p] Quiros, in the Viajero Universal, XXVI. 190.

[q] Dalrymple's Historical Collection, I. p. 43.

most southerly land found here was called the island of Christeval. The whole of this archipelago was peopled by negroes, armed with arrows and lances; they dyed their hair red, and ate, with high relish, the flesh of their own species[r]. No evidence is given of Mendana having found any indications of the precious metals. Solomon's name was placed in the foreground merely to tempt the avarice of the Spanish government.

In a second voyage, Mendana, after searching in vain for Solomon's Islands, discovered the Island of Santa Cruz and a few others. These were Egmont Island, and some others belonging to Queen Charlotte's group, which were again found by Captain Carteret.

The attempt of the Spaniards to form a settlement did not succeed. Mendana's widow brought back to the Philippine Islands the remains of the colony which had escaped the ravages of disease and the hostile attacks of the natives.

Carteret's Observations.

Carteret landed on the Island of Santa Cruz, where he was obliged to maintain a bloody contest with the inhabitants. Here the English had been received and entertained in a house of assembly similar in its form and accommodations to those used in Otaheite[s]. The natives were black, though not of the very deepest tint. One of them, who was taken prisoner, had woolly hair, but regular features. These people, brave and vigorous, resolutely defended their island, which is fertile, well wooded, and lined with large villages. Carteret acknowledged the priority of discovery by the Spaniards, yet presumed to name the group Queen Charlotte's Islands. Even Swallow Island, which has not been found by any subsequent navigator in the situation pointed out by this Englishman, must be that of San Francisco, which was seen by Mendana. It corresponds to it, at least, in latitude and in physical features[t].

[r] Figuerva, in the Viajero Universal, vol. XXVII. No. 273.

[s] Voyage de Carteret, chap. IV. et V.

[t] Viajero Univ. p. 62. Compare Découvertes des Français au sud-est de la Nouv. Guinée, en 1768 et 1769; Fleurieu, I. 233.

BOOK LVII.

Observations of d'Entrecasteaux and Labillardiere.

D'Entrecasteaux and Labillardière have given us an excellent description of the archipelago of Santa Cruz. Trevannion Bay is the most remarkable harbour of the large island. The mountains, which are not high, seem to be calcareous. The inhabitants are olive-coloured, and in features resemble those of the Moluccas; but some of them are black, and seem to belong to a totally distinct race. The latter have thick lips, and broad flat noses; but all of them have crisp hair, and broad foreheads[u]. They pluck the hair off every part of the body, and delight in wearing white hair, which they produce by means of lime, in the same way as is done in the Friendly Islands. This colour forms a strange contrast with the darkness of their skin, which is increased by tattooing.

Discoveries of Surville.

Solomon's Islands were first re-discovered by Surville, a French navigator, who called them the Arsacides Islands[x].

He followed the chain from north-west to south-east. He discovered, on the north side, Port Praslin, Contrariety Islands, Deliverance Islands, and the eastern extremity of all these countries called Surville Cape, or Surville Island. The inhabitants manifested a perfidious and bloody disposition, on which account he compared them to the famous Assassins (erroneously called by him Arsacides) of Persia and Syria. They had black complexions, woolly hair, flattened noses, and thick lips. They powdered themselves with chalk, wore bracelets of shells, and girdles of human teeth. Nosegays were hung from their perforated noses. Their light boats were pitched with mastic. Surville noticed a diversity of tribes which spoke different languages. The government appears to be despotic in the extreme. The fishermen and cultivators are obliged to offer the king the whole produce of their labour, and he retains as much of it as he chooses. A subject who presumes to walk in the shadow of the king is punished with death.

Manners of the inhabitants.

[u] Labillardière, vol. II. p. 255.

[x] Fleurieu, Découvertes des Français, p. 120. p. 287, &c.

The sculptures with which they adorn their war boats are master-pieces of elegance. Some of these are fifty or sixty feet long. Their arms are far from being contemptible, especially their powerful elastic bows[y].

Discoveries of M. de Bougainville.

A year after Surville's voyage, another French navigator, M. de Bougainville, leaving successively the New Hebrides or Great Cyclades, and the island of Louisiade, found a passage by the north of Solomon's Archipelago. He discovered Bougainville and Booka islands. The strait by which these are divided from the islands visited by Mendana and Surville, received the name of "Bougainville's Strait." This navigator was here in great want of provisions. He observed among the inhabitants of Choiseul Bay evident traces of cannibalism [z].

Shortland's discoveries.

The south-west coast of this archipelago remained to be examined. It was visited in 1783 by an English navigator, Mr. Shortland, who took this series of islands for one continued country, which he thought proper to call New Georgia. From what he saw and heard he inferred that the natives called it *Simbu*. The great mountain, which he called Mount Lammas, is situated in Mendana's Island of Guadalcanal. The strait to which he gave his own name is the same through which Bougainville had passed. But he observed the "Treasury Islands," which had escaped the rapid researches of the French navigator [a].

Observations of d'Entrecasteaux.

D'Entrecasteaux has thrown considerable light on the geography of this archipelago. He examined the southern coasts of San Christoval and Guadalcanal; verified the points seen by Shortland; and determined with greater accuracy the position of the islands discovered by Bougainville. The atlas accompanying his account points out discoveries the authors of which are not mentioned, but which appear from their names to belong to the English.

[y] Fleurieu, Découvertes des Français, p. 136. 145, &c.

[z] Bougainville, Voyage Autour du Monde, p. 269.

[a] Bratring, Memoir on the Discovery of New Georgia, the Arsacides Islands, &c. &c. in the Ephemerides Geographicæ of Bertuch.

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Recapitulation.

To sum up the detached notions obtained by these navigators, Solomon's Archipelago consists of the following islands from south to north: San Christoval, near to which are the Santa Anna, and Santa Catalina of Mendana, and the Island of Contrarieties of Surville; Guadalcanal, separated by a strait from Santa Isabella, the largest of the whole archipelago; to the east of the strait are Carteret and Simpson's Islands, which must correspond to the Buenavista and Florida of Mendana. To the south of these, according to the Spanish navigator, are San Dimas, San German, Guadeloop, and Sesarga. The large island of Isabella is separated by a long channel, to which no name is given, from the islands seen by Shortland, and which form a chain to the west of it. Marsh Island is small; but that which Shortland thought he heard the natives calling Simboo appears to be large, and is probably the Malayta of Mendana. To the north of it is an island which has no name, and which contains Choiseul Bay. Crossing Bougainville's Strait we come to the Treasury Islands, and those of Bougainville and Booka.

Nature of the country.

According to Labillardière, the naturalist belonging to d'Entrecasteaux's expedition, the Solomon Islands are surrounded by reefs and coral banks, which, like those of New Caledonia, render the navigation[a] very dangerous. They have a fertile aspect, and present delicious landscapes. The whole surface to the very tops of the mountains is shaded by trees[b].

Inhabitants.

The island of Booka is very populous. The inhabitants are of middling stature, with black complexions, but not of the deepest tint. They go entirely naked. Their muscles are well marked, indicating great strength. Their figures are ugly but expressive. Their heads are large; the forehead and whole face is broad and flat, especially below the nose. The chin is thick, the cheeks rather prominent, the nose flattened, the mouth large, but the lips thin. They pluck out the hair from every part of the body. They bestow

[a] Labillardière, I. p. 229.

industrious pains on the making of their bows; their arrows are tipped with the sharp bones of the stickle-back, and they are skilful in the use of their weapons. Their boats are elegantly formed and adorned with carved work. In the Island of Contrarieties some of the words used by the natives belong to the Malay or Polynesian language.

Productions.

Solomon's Islands seem to be very fertile. Among their vegetable productions the old navigators mention cloves, coffee, ginger, a kind of citron, and many resinous trees, which afford an odorous aromatic exudation. The bread-fruit tree and the fan-leaved palm abound in them. Plenty of poultry were seen; the dog and pig seem to be known; the forests are peopled by elegant paroquets. They harbour serpents, toads which have a crest on the back, long spiders, and large ants [c]. A little gold and some pearls were found by Mendana, which seem to have given origin to the extravagant ideas which several Spanish writers have formed of the treasures of this modern Ophir [d].

Hunter, Pitt, and Bellona Islands, situated to the south-west of San Christoval, form a separate archipelago.

Low islands adjoining.

To the north-east of Solomon's Islands there seems to be a chain of low islets, surrounded by reefs, which is probably not fully known. Captain Hunter has lately determined Stewart's Islands, Bradley's Shallows, and Lord Howe's Group. Bradley's Shallows are thought to be the same to which Mendana gave the name of "Baxos de la Candelaria;" perhaps they are only a continuation of them. This chain of low islands probably joins the group to which Abel Tasman gave the Name of Ontong-Java, and which the Spanish navigator, Maurelle, believed he re-discovered. These lands have the appearance of groves of palms joined to shallows. The Great Ocean has several groups of this kind, the extent and precise number of which it will long be difficult to ascertain. We proceed, therefore, to more important objects.

[c] Surville, chez Fleurieu.

[d] Burney, Hist. des Découv. p. 283—287.

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Between Solomon's Islands and New Guinea we find two important archipelagos. That of Louisiade, to the south-west of New Guinea, was discovered by Boungainville, who visited in a particular manner the bay called "Orangery Harbour." M. d'Entrecasteaux, who visited these countries on the north-side, gave names to the islands of Rossel, Saint-Aignan, d'Entrecasteaux, and Trobriand. The whole of Louisiade is a chain of islands surrounded by rocks and reefs. It appears to be very populous. The inhabitants go naked, and are almost black. Their woolly hair is decked with tufts of feathers. Some among them are as black as the negroes of Mozambique. Like them they have the upper lip greatly projecting beyond the lower. These must be distinct races. The inhabitants of Louisiade do not understand the Malay language; their huts are built like those of the Papuas. They wear a buckler on the left arm, a piece of armour not common among the savages of this part of the world. Their axes are made of serpentine stone. They are wonderfully expert at sailing near the wind[e]. They manufacture fishing lines. They are very fond of sweet smells, and perfume the greater part of the objects which they make use of.

Archipelago of Louisiade.

Inhabitants.

The perfumes which were exhaled along the coast[f] created a belief that aromatic trees, particularly the culiban bay, grew in this country. The cocoa, the banana, and the betel tree were seen.

We must take notice of the hypothesis of M. de Fleurieu, according to which, the northern coasts of Louisiade are the same that were discovered by the Dutch vessel Geelvink, in 1705, though neither their longitude nor latitude were determined[g]. But this hypothesis is superseded since we have become acquainted with a large bay in the north of New Guinea, which seems to suit the description of that which was visited by the Geelvink.

[e] Labillardière, tom. I. p. 275. Rossel, d'Entrecasteaux.

[f] Boungainville, Voyage, p. 258. Labillardière, tom. II. p. 281.

[g] Dubrosses, Hist. des Navigat. aux Terres Australes, I. p. 414.

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Archipelago of New Britain.

The Archipelago of New Britain, long confounded with New Guinea, is separated from that country by Dampier's Strait. Before this separation was known, Lemaire and Abel Tasman had coasted a part of the archipelago, and particularly New Ireland. Even before their time, the Spaniards, in their first voyages to New Guinea, had found the large island called Dagoa, the figure of which, in Debry's Chart, published at Frankfort in 1596, resembles that which was given to New Britain[h] before Carteret's voyage; but these old discoveries remain enveloped in deep obscurity. Dampier was the first who informed us that this mass of land was separate from New Guinea. Carteret, soon after this, discovered St. George's Channel, and separated from New Britain the island which he named New Ireland. He also examined New Hanover and the Admiralty Islands to the west of it. D'Entrecasteaux contracted the circumference of these lands, which had been too much rounded off, especially by his examination of the north coast of New Britain, where he discovered the French Islands and William's Islands. The supposed eastern extremity of New Britain was found to form a separate island, and there were strong grounds of doubt whether the land next adjoining was a continuation with the main island[i].

Nature and productions of New Britain.

The nature of the soil and the character of the inhabitants resemble those of the neighbouring countries which we have now described. Dampier, who stopped chiefly in a bay belonging to New Britain, called Port Montague, found the country mountainous and woody, containing fertile valleys and large rivers. It appeared to him to be very populous. The natives resembled those of Papua, and managed their canoes with the nicest skill. The principal production appeared to be the cocoa tree. There were also found a number of esculent roots, particularly ginger, several kinds of aloes, rattans, and bamboos[k].

[h] Dalrymple, Hist. Coll. I. p. 16.
[i] Zimmermann, Australien, I. 328.
[k] Labillardière, tom. II. p. 285.

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The birds and the insects were in great numbers. Dogs, or some similar animals, were believed to be observed. The sea and the rivers swarmed with fish. In the main land, and the adjoining islands, there are many volcanoes. New Britain presented to d'Entrecasteaux evidences of a very crowded population. The huts of the inhabitants were raised on posts like those of the Papuans [l].

Captain Carteret found the inhabitants of New Ireland a very warlike people. They carry spears armed with sharpened pebbles. Their faces are besmeared with white paint, and their hair covered with white powder; a characteristic trait of all these nations. They are black; their hair is woolly and curled, but they have neither the thick lips nor the flat noses of negroes. Some of the canoes of New Ireland are eighty feet long, and are made of a single tree.

Bougainville observed here the pepper vine; but it is to Labillardière that we are indebted for the most extended accounts.

Mountains.

In the neighbourhood of Carteret harbour, in New Ireland, there are some steep mountains, containing on their sides remains of marine bodies, of which they are partly composed. Some of them in the interior seem to be upwards of 8000 feet above the level of the sea, and are covered with tall trees to their summits. The hollows of the rocks harbour the large bat called *Vespertilio vampyrus*. The bread-fruit tree is found here, and the cubeb pepper, which grows amidst the shade of the forests [m]. There are many scorpions and *Scolopendra*.

Plants and Animals.

Island of Cocoas.

The little island of Cocoas, in this vicinity, is entirely calcareous. It contains a much greater number of fig-trees than of cocoas. The *Barringtonia speciosa*, the *Pandanus*, the *Heritiera*, attracted by the humidity, wave their magnificent branches over the surface of the sea [n].

[l] Dampier's Voyages, t. V. p. 120.

[m] Labillardière, tom. I. p. 241,

[n] Labillardière, tom. I. p. 233, &c.

There is also a new species of areca palm, which is 140 feet in height. Its trunk is extremely tender, but the wood is very hard. There is a very large tree belonging to the genus *Solanum*. Teak and gum-bearing trees are common. In the marshes is found the useful sago palm, a valuable resource for a future colony. In the west part there is a species of nutmeg, described by Rumphius under the name of *Myristica mas*.

Duke of York's Island.

The small island called the Duke of York's, in George's Channel, appeared to Captain Hunter a large garden, its plantations were so regular and so near together. The inhabitants brought fruits, which they piled up in pyramidal heaps, on the top of which they placed little dogs with their feet tied; they sung hymns of peace to the sound of a large shell; but amidst these demonstrations, tending to dissipate every fear, the spirit of defiance and ferocity which they cherished was sufficiently apparent [o].

New Hanover.

To the west of New Ireland is another pretty large island, though little known, called New Hanover, separated from the preceding by a channel much obstructed with reefs, and shut up, at its entrance, by small islets.

Small Islands.

Among the small islands, which form a chain to the east of New Ireland, we shall take notice of Garrit-Denis, or rather Gerard de Nys. The inhabitants resemble those of the main land; they wear little pegs stuck through holes in their noses [p].

Admiralty Islands.

Turning westward, in the direction of New Guinea, we meet with a series of archipelagos; among which are the Portland Islands, the Admiralty Islands, Hermit's Islands, and Exchequer Islands. Each of them has a large island in the centre of the group, and round which the outline is formed by a great number of flat islets, connected together by reefs. In the archipelago of the Admiralty Islands the islanders have black complexions, though not of the deepest kind; their physiognomy is agreeable, and, in its oval

[o] Hunter's Journal, p. 141.

[p] Dampier, v. p. 101.

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form, differs little from the European character. Their figures are excellent, if the plates published by travellers are worthy of credit. The chiefs seem to be possessed of great authority; some persons among them were armed with darts pointed with volcanic glass. The only covering which the men wear is a shell fixed in front, for the protection of decency. The women wear a girdle round the middle. Their hair is curled and black. They sometimes paint themselves red with ochre mixed up with oil [q].

Hermit's Islands.

The Hermit's Archipelago produces several species of *Eugenia*, which bear excellent fruit. The inhabitants seem stronger, yet gentler and more peaceful, than those of the Admiralty Islands.

New Guinea.

A country of greater importance now claims our attention. New Guinea is the great link by which the Molucca Islands are connected with New Holland on the one hand, and the Polynesian Archipelagos on the other. It may, probably, have served as a medium of communication to the inhabitants, and even to the animals and plants, of different parts of Oceanica. It must participate in some of the characters both of New Holland and the Malay Islands; but, unfortunately, we know nothing of it beyond the line of coast, and even of this line our knowledge is imperfect.

The west part is best known, and there seems to be now no room for supposing that there is any strait, by which this country is divided into two. But of the whole south coast, especially from Cape Walsh to Cape Rodney, our knowledge is only partial, or derived from old charts, which are not to be depended on.

Maclure's Gulf, penetrating deep into the country on the north part of the west coast, forms a circular peninsula, in which the Cape of Good Hope and Dory Harbour are situated. The great Bay of Geelvink, penetrating from north to south, to a depth of 190 miles, produces

[q] Labillardière, t. II. p. 251.

another isthmus and another peninsula. Opposite to this gulf are situated Shooten Island, Jobie, and some others, which were long taken for a part of the coast of New Guinea. The remainder of the north coast, discovered by the Spaniards, Meneze, and Saavedra, visited by Lemaire, Schooten, and Tasman, and by Dampier, Carteret, and Bougainville, seems to be one even uninterrupted line, parallel to which is a long chain of islands. On examination it is also found to have large lagoons[r]. From King William's Cape to South-east Cape the east coast was seen by d'Entrecasteaux, but only at a distance. It is not certain whether Cape Rodney, discovered by Edwards, forms part of the continent; of which, in that case, it will be the southern extremity.

In fine, the delineations of the great gulf between Cape Walsh and the Arroo Islands are various and inconsistent. At the bottom of this gulf, the Dutch place the river of Assassins, and another which they call Keerveer, or "the Return."

Supposing that New Guinea extends, without interruption, from Cape Blanc, (also called the Cape of Good Hope and Cape Rodney,) its length must be about 1200 miles, and its breadth will vary from 15 to 360.

Torres Strait, on the south, separates New Guinea from New Holland, and Dampier's Strait from New Britain.

This country is often called Papua, or the country of the Papoos, from the name by which the inhabitants are known among the Malays.

Coasts. Mountains.

The coasts of New Guinea are generally high. In the interior, mountains are seen towering over one another. There are cataracts, the foaming waters of which are visible at a distance of many leagues. In the western peninsula, the mountain Arfook seems to reach higher than the clouds. The Dutch charts lay down to the north-east of the Arroo islands a mountain covered with snow, which

[r] See the Comparative Chart of the Spanish and other discoveries in Dalrymple.

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must be nearly 20,000 feet high. The mountains on the coast are richly clothed with trees. The shores are covered with cocoas. Navigators have been universally struck with astonishment at the sight of so fine a country, which deserves to possess a more industrious and civilized race of inhabitants. Captain Forrest, who only visited Dory harbour, found many nutmeg trees in some small islands; and we have reason to think that the main land is not destitute of the same productions. An aromatic bark, called *massoy*, is exported in large quantity[s]. It seems to be the produce of a sort of laurel. The Dutch found in this country iron-wood, ebony, canary-wood, lingoa, and the grape-formed nutmeg[t]. The sea throws out large lumps of ambergris. Beautiful pearls are found in it.

Vegetable productions.

Animals.

Pigs abound on the sea-coast, and wild boars in the forests; but perhaps the animal called the wild boar is the barbyrossa of the Moluccas.

Birds of Paradise.

The ornithology of this country is curious and even romantic. It is the favourite residence of the superb and singular birds of paradise, of which there are ten or twelve kinds. That kind which is called "The King," has two detached feathers, parallel to the tail, which end in an elegant curl, with a tuft. The species called "The Magnificent," has also two detached feathers of the same length with the body, very slender, and ending in a tuft. The species called "Golden Throat," has three long and straight feathers proceeding from each side of the head. All the birds of paradise are arrayed in brilliant colours. They are chiefly caught in the Arroo Islands. They are shot with blunted arrows, or caught with bird-lime, or with guns. After being dried by means of smoke and sulphur, they are sold for nuts or pieces of iron, and carried to Banda. This country also contains beautiful paroquets and loris. The goora carries a sort of crown, or rather a

[s] Valentyn, Amboyna, p. 208—289.

[t] Ibid., Description de Banda, 64 et 67. (Account of the Expedition of Keyts.)

crest of long plumes, arranged over the head. White pigeons and copper-coloured ring-doves live here on the nutmegs of the country.

Inhabitants.

New Guinea seems to be peopled with a diversity of human tribes. The Bajoos of Borneo, and the Malays of the Moluccas, lead the lives of hunters on the whole of the west coast. Several of them have naturally settled in that quarter. In the interior there is a race of Haraforas, who live in the hollows of old trees, on which they climb, by means of a notched piece of wood, which they drag behind them, for fear of any surprise.

Bajoos.

Haraforas.

Oceanian negroes.

The great mass of the inhabitants seems to consist of real Oceanian negroes. Their bodies are stout, tall, jet black, and rough to the touch, the eyes large, the mouth extremely wide, the nose flattened, the hair curled, but hard, and of a shining black [u]. The women have enormously large hanging breasts. Their dwellings are built in the water, on a scaffolding. In this particular they resemble the Borneans, and some other Asiatic islanders. The women appear to be industrious. They make mats and earthen pots, which they bake with dried grass, or brushwood. They even handle the axe, while their indolent husbands look on, or occupy themselves with preparations for hunting the wild boar [x].

Clothing.

Dress.

The aspect of these people is frightful and hideous. Their skin is often disfigured with marks of a leprous appearance. They form the hair of the head into enormous bunches, sometimes three feet long. Sometimes they adorn this with the feathers of the bird of paradise, while a number of boar's tusks are hung from the neck as objects of luxury. The religious creed of the Papuas is little known. They build tombs of hard coral rock, which they sometimes adorn with sculpture. Their principal trade is with the Chinese, from whom they purchase their tools and

Trade with the Chinese.

[u] Sonnerat, Voyage, III. p. 399.

[x] Forrest, Voyage à la Nouvelle Guinée, tom. I. p. 110—112.

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utensils, and the coarse Indian stuffs which are used as clothing for the women. They give in exchange, massoy, ambergris, sea snails, tortoise shell, small pearls, birds of paradise, loris, and other birds, which they dry with great skill. Some slaves are also exported, who are no doubt prisoners of war. Armed with bows and arrows, and even with copper swords, the inhabitants of the west coast have repelled detachments of Dutch soldiers who were sent into their country. Captain Cook saw, near Cape Walsh, savages armed with a tube from which smoke and flame issued, but accompanied with no report[y]. The precise nature of this weapon is not known. The learned navigator, Dampier, admires the lightness of the boats, or *proas*, which these people manage with much dexterity, and adorn with elegant carvings[z].

Fire arms.

Boats.

Some of the small adjoining islands are better known. Among the Schooten Islands, four had flaming volcanoes, when the Dutch passed them; their soil was very fertile. The islands of Moa, Arimoa, and others, have the appearance of gardens of cocoa trees and other palms.

Island of Waijoo.

To the north-west is seen Waijoo, an island of considerable size, which is said to contain 100,000 inhabitants. The land is elevated, and contains some very high mountains. In the north part of it are the two excellent harbours of Piapis, and Offak[a]. This island, called Ooarido by the natives, is covered with trees of great size. The inhabitants go entirely naked, with the exception of a piece of coarse cloth, which they wear about the middle. Their chiefs are dressed in stuffs which they purchase from the Chinese. They also, like the latter, wear a conical cap of palm leaves, and the greater part of them speak Chinese. Their hair is curled, very thick, and pretty long. Some of them allow their mustaches to grow. They are skilful in the use of the bow. They live on pigs,

[y] Hawkesbury, p. 658.

[z] Figured by Abel Tasman, (Valentyn, IV.)

[a] Forrest, Voyage, I. p. 90.

turtles, poultry, Siam oranges, cocoa nuts, papaws, gourds, purslain, citrons, pimento, and green ears of maize roasted. Labillardière found here the beautiful promerops of New Guinea, (a bird resembling the lapwing,) large black cuckatoos, and a new species of cacao, which he designates the cacao of Waijoo [b]. Wild cocks, and the tufted pheasants of India, are very common in the woods surrounding the excellent roadstead of Boni-Saini.

Salwatty Island.

Salwatty is also a populous island, governed by a raja. Its inhabitants resemble those of New Guinea; their appearance is frightful, and their character very ferocious. They live on fish, turtles, and sago.

Islands of St. David and Freewill.

The most suitable point of transition from New Guinea to Polynesia, or Eastern Oceanica, will be found in the islands of St. David and Freewill. These are situated to the north of Schooten Island, and peopled with a race exactly similar to the inhabitants of the Marian and Sandwich Islands, Otaheite and New Zealand. "Here," says Carteret, "we met, for the first time, with copper-coloured, long-haired Indians [c]." They build their villages in groves of cocoa trees, bananas, and bread fruit. Their armour, made of matting, resists a pistol bullet. Their language resembles that of the Sandwich Islanders [d], a remarkable circumstance in the history of the Oceanian nations.

To M. d'Entrecasteaux, the group of St. David, discovered in 1761, and that of Freewill, discovered in 1768, appeared to be the same archipelago. It is certain that the islands visited by Meares are the same with those the position of which was fixed by the French navigator. But as Meares and Carteret do not agree about the number of the islands, nor their longitude, and since low lands easily escape the view of navigators, it is possible that a chain of islets, of little elevation, may extend in the direction pointed out by "the low islands" of Bougainville, and the island

[b] Labillardière, tom. II. p. 291.

[c] Carteret, in Hawkesbury's Account, I. p. 608.

[d] Meares Voyage, p. 84. (Forster's translation.)

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Aiow. An English navigator has just published a note, in which he gives the name of St. David's Islands, to a group situated in 55 minutes of south latitude, and 134° 20′ of east longitude. The particulars which he gives respecting the inhabitants, coincide with the preceding accounts[a]. If this opinion is admitted, the islands of St. David will only be the western portion of the archipelago of the Schooten Islands.

[a] Bradley in the Annual Register, 1817. Miscellan. Tracts, p. 916.

Table of the Geographical Positions of the Great Compound Chain extending from New Zealand to New Guinea.

Places.	South Latitude.	Longitude East from Greenwich.	Authorities.
NEW ZEALAND.	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Cape North	34 22 0	173 20 15	Cook.
Cape Maria Van Diemen	34 30 0	173 1 30	D'Entrecasteaux
Idem	. . .	172 42 15	Cook.
East Cape	37 42 30	181 0 0	Idem.
Dusky Bay	45 47 25	169 18 25	Cook and Wales.
West Cape	45 54 0	166 41 15	Idem.
Chatham Island . . .	45 53 0	183 5 0	Broughton, corrected by Beaupré.
NEW CALEDONIA.			
Queen Charlotte's Cape	22 15 0	167 13 0	Wales.
Prince of Wales' Cape .	22 26 30	. . . .	Cook.
Balade Haven	20 17 11	164 24 46	D'Entrecasteaux
Northern point of the Reef	18 3 0	162 42 15	Idem.
ARCHIPELAGO DEL SPIRITO SANTO.			
St. James's Bay (in Terra del Spirito Santo) . .	15 20 0	. . . .	Quiros.
Cape Quiros (Idem) . .	14 44 0	149 15 15	Cook.
Port Sandwich (Malicolo)	16 25 0	167 55 37	Idem.
Sandwich Island . . .	17 45 0	128 30 15	Idem.
Resolution Port (Tanna)	19 32 0	169 45 0	Wales.
SOLOMON ISLANDS, &c.			
Cape Byron (Santa Cruz Island)	10 41 0	166 4 47	Rossel, Beaupré.
Cape Boscawen (Idem)	10 51 5	165 43 30	Idem.
Swallow Island . . .	10 26 0	166 20 15	Wilson's Chart.
Baxos de Candelaria . .	6 45 0	160 5 15	Mendana and Fleurieu.
Bradley's Shallows . .	6 52 0	161 6 15	Hunter.
North Point of Isabella Island	7 30 0	. . . .	Mendana.
Port Praslin (Ibid) . .	7 25 0	157 52 15	Surville.
Idem	. . .	158 30 15	Rosse and Beaupré's Chart.
Eddystone Rock (Indian Bay)	8 12 0	159 28 15	Shortland.
North Cape (Booka Island)	5 0 30	154 35 15	Rossel and Beaupré.

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Table of Geographical Positions, &c.—continued.

Places.	Latitude.	Longitude East from Greenwich.	Authorities.
ARCHIPELAGO OF NEW BRITAIN, &c.			
Cape Gloucester, (New Britain)	deg. min. sec. 5 29 0	deg. min. sec. 148 20 15	Dampier.
Cape Anne, (idem)	6 54 0	148 24 15	D'Entrecasteaux.
Port Montague, (idem)	6 10 0	152 40 15	Idem.
Cape St. George, (New Ireland)	5 0 0	152 16 15	Dampier, (Rossel.)
Carteret Harbour	4 29 0	152 40 45	Idem. Idem.
Cape Salomaswer (New Hanover f)	2 10 0	150 18 15	Maurelle.
La Vendola, (Admiralty Islands)	2 14 0	148 9 15	D'Entrecasteaux.
Admiralty Islands, (north-west point)	1 57 0	146 35 15	Bougainville, (Rossel.)
Hermit Islands, (north point)	1 28 0	148 20 15	Dampier and Rossel.
NEW GUINEA.			
Moa Island	2 7 0	138 47 15	D'Entrecasteaux.
Cape Dory	0 35 0	133 41 15	Idem.
Idem	0 21 0	131 0 15	Forrest, (incorrect.)
Cape of Good Hope	0 19 5	132 26 15	D'Entrecasteaux.
Mispalu (Western Island)	0 19 15	132 7 15	Idem.
Cape Rodney	10 3 22	147 46 0	Edwards.
LOUISIADE.			
Cape Deliverance, (in Rossel Island)	11 21 0	154 26 15	Rossel.

f The true name is "Solomon Sweer's Point." See the Plates of Abel Tasman's Voyage, No. 22. Sect. X. in Valentyn.

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OCEANICA.

PART VI.

Eastern Oceanica, or Polynesia.

We have already made some general observations on the numerous groups of small islands scattered over the surface of the Great Ocean, which, under the name of Polynesia, constitute the most easterly portion of Oceanica. We have taken notice of the identity of origin of many among them, consisting of volcanic depositions or accumulations of sand on reefs of coral. We have also discussed the questions relating to the still more astonishing identity which appears in the physical character, languages, and manners, of the tribes diffused over these countries. We shall now give a separate description of the principal islands. It would be a heavy undertaking to enumerate the whole, and superfluous to repeat under each those particulars which have necessarily a close resemblance to one another.

PELEW OR PALAOS ISLANDS.

When we leave the Molucca sea, we come first to the Pelew Islands. These had been first visited by the Spaniards, who called them the Palaos; but were little known previously to the agreeable and interesting account composed by Mr. Keate, in the Memoirs of Captain Wilson, who was shipwrecked here in 1783. This ingenious

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writer has perhaps given some embellishment to the picture. The inhabitants of the Pelew Islands are always represented as an amiable, gay, and innocent people. They are handsome, and of middling stature. They are darker than the shade called copper-colour, but not black, and their hair is long and flowing. The men go naked; the women wear small aprons, or rather fringes, made of the fibrous covering of the cocoa nut. Both sexes are tattooed, and their teeth are blackened. They do not appear to have any idea of religion, though they conceive that the soul survives the body. Their language seems to be derived from the Malayan, so extensively diffused through the islands of these seas.

Inhabitants.

Government.

The government is vested in a king, under whom are *rupaks*, or chiefs, forming a sort of nobility. The whole land is the property of the sovereign. His subjects can only be proprietors of moveable articles, such as canoes, arms, and some rude pieces of furniture.

Soil and produce.

These islands are generally of middling elevation, and covered with close woods. To the west they are beset with a long coral reef, extending five or six miles from the shore, and in some places more than double that distance. Ebony grows in the forests: bread-fruit and cocoas seem to be abundant.

Animals.

Our poultry exists among this people in the woods, and in a wild state. The natives neglected them till they were instructed by the English in the use which might be made of them as articles of food. Fish form their chief subsistence. They make a sort of preserves of the sugar cane, which appears to be indigenous in these islands. They rise at day-break, and take a cold bath. Their houses are fixed on broad stones, raised about three feet from the ground, and are made of boards and bamboo. They have large halls for their public meetings. Their best knives are made of mother-of-pearl. They have also some made of muscle shells and split bamboo. They manufacture a coarse earthen ware. Their furniture and tools resemble those of the Otaheitans. Their arms are pikes, javelins,

and slings. Their canoes are made of the trunks of trees, and ornamented with very handsome sculpture.

To the north of the Palaos Islands are those called the Matelottes, the Martyr's Island, Sagavedra, and some others. Some Spanish navigators have re-discovered these islands, which appeared doubtful.

The groups of St. Andrew, Pedro, Warwick, Evening, and some others to the south are imperfectly known. Small islands.

Turning to the north-east of the Pelew Islands, we find the Marians, a chain of fifteen or sixteen islands, six only of which are of considerable size, viz. Guan, Zarpane, Tinian, Saipan, Anatajan, Pagoo, and Agrigam. MARIAN ISLANDS.

These islands were discovered in 1521, by the celebrated navigator Magellan, who called them the Ladrones, on account of the strong propensity of the inhabitants to thieving, and the skill with which they carried on their depredations. But under Philip IV. the name of the Marians was given to them in honour of Mary-Ann of Austria[a].

The natives have been almost exterminated by the Spaniards. In complexion, language, manners, and government, they seem to have borne much resemblance to the Tagals of the Philippine Islands. Though subject to a hereditary nobility, they lived in peace and happiness[b]. Their small vessels, called *proas*, have been considered as models of naval architecture. Pigafetta and Anson, at very distant periods, remarked their excellent construction. They have canoes which are convex on one side, and straight on the other. These have a balancing pole to keep them in equilibrium. They sail at the rate of twenty miles in an hour with a side wind. By joining two boats of the same size by a board, several islanders of the Great Ocean have formed vessels which that masterly sea- Inhabitants. Proas or canoes.

[a] Bratring, Mém. sur les îles Marianes, translated into French, in the Annales des Voyages.

[b] Father Gobien, in Desbrosses, II. p. 495.

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man, Sir Sidney Smith, thought worthy of being imitated, and introduced in the navies of Europe[c]. A missionary asserted, that before the arrival of the Spaniards, they were ignorant of the use of fire, and took it for an animated being. Their islands are filled with volcanoes, and in that case they must be considered as worshippers of fire. But their known industry, and the whole aspect of the facts, declare this story to be void of foundation. The natural geography of these islands is little known. La Perouse found some of them to be volcanic. Assumption Island contained formidable torrents of lava in all directions[d].

Animals. Vegetables.

The Spaniards found them without a single quadruped, and brought them horses, cows, and pigs, and, according to some accounts, guanacos, or lamas[e]. The only vegetables known to them were the jack, or bread-fruit tree, the cocoa, the orange, and the water-melon. Rice was planted here by the Spaniards.

The island of Guan, almost depopulated by the tyranny of the successive governors, began to breathe a little in 1772, under the wise administration of Don Tobias. He accustomed the Indians to different sorts of culture. Since that period the island produces maize, cotton, indigo, cocoa and sugar cane[f]. Agana is its capital, and has a roadstead protected by a battery of eight guns.

Island of Tinian. Contradiction of navigators.

The island of Tinian has been rendered famous by the brilliant description given of it in the history of Lord Anson's voyage. Navigators who, for a long time, wandered over these seas, sometimes tossed by storms, and subjected to privations and diseases, were quite charmed when they met with a country clothed with a little green sod. They enlarge on the superior beauties of places which are

[c] Boswell's notice of the experiments of Sir Sidney Smith, in the Annual Register, 1805. Miscellaneous Tracts, p. 855.

[d] La Perouse, Voyage, II. p. 346.

[e] Byron, Voyage, p. 121.

[f] La Perouse, t. II. p. 350.

far from being extraordinary. Hence, all the navigators, who, on the faith of such accounts, have landed on the island of Tinian, have been disappointed in their expectations; and some, among whom was Byron, have laboured to depreciate the island of Tinian, as much as it had been formerly extolled. Anson found here a prodigious quantity of cattle, which were white-coloured, excepting the ears, which were generally brown or black. They had probably been brought for the use of the Spanish garrison. He found also orange, cocoa, and bread-fruit trees. It certainly appears to contain all these different sorts of provisions; to which modern travellers add the lemon, the mango, the pine-apple, and the guava[g]. But very simple causes, political or physical, would be sufficient suddenly to strip so small an island of these advantages. A hurricane, an earthquake, a disease among the cattle, a bad governor, the arrival of a certain number of ships, might transform Tinian from a paradise into a desert.

Volcanic islets.

To the north of the Marians, are different groups of small islands, almost all of them volcanic. Several of them have no other name than that of Volcano Island; and others have names of similar import, such as Sulphur Island. There are two collections of reefs surrounding two small islands, to which the imposing name of "The Gardens," has been given. The "Gold" and "Silver" islands, probably owe their names to Japanese fables.

Remarkable rock.

In these seas is situated the famous pyramidal rock, called Lot's Wife. A sea neither broken nor interrupted for an immense space in all directions, here dashes with sublime violence on the solid mass which rises almost perpendicularly to a height of 350 feet. On the south-east side is a deep cavern where the waves resound with a prodigious noise.

[g] Shortland and Marshall, translated in Forster's *Magasin des Voyages*, I. 191—199.

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CAROLINE ISLANDS.

No question in geography is more obscure than that of the position of the CAROLINE ISLANDS. All that we know is, that this archipelago lies between the Pescadores on the east, the Marians on the north, and the Pelew Islands on the west.

It is probable that the little chains composing the great chain of the Caroline Islands run nearly south and north, like most of those of the Great Ocean.

Waiting till some accurate navigator shall remove the veil by which this country is at present covered, we shall adhere to the interesting account of those generous missionaries, who at the peril of their lives have carried even into this corner, unknown to geography, the doctrines of virtue and of peace [h].

The first idea of these islands appears to have been conveyed to the Philippines in 1686, by a family of savages, who, intending to sail from one island to another, had been carried off by the winds and the currents. The Spaniards first called them the New Philippines, and afterwards the Carolines, from the name of their king, Charles II. They are about eighty in number, and very fertile. They enjoy an agreeable climate, but are subject to dreadful hurricanes.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants, who are very numerous, resemble those of the Philippine islands; their complexion is a deep copper colour According to the letters of the Jesuits, each island had its own chief; but the whole acknowledged the authority of one king, whose residence was at Lamurca. The nobility are haughty, and the people enslaved. These islanders believe in celestial spirits, which come to bathe in a sacred lake in the island of Fallalo, but they have neither temples nor idols, nor the least appearance of religious worship. The inhabitants of Yap are said to worship a species of crocodile, and to have among them a set of magicians. Polygamy is allowed. Criminals are sen-

Manners and laws.

[h] Father Cantova, in the Lettres Edifiantes, II. p. 4; and Desbrosses, Histoire des Navigateurs, supplément, tom. II. p. 43.

tenced to banishment from one island to another. They are fond of dancing, which they accompany with singing, being unacquainted with musical instruments. Their only arms are a bow, and a lance pointed with bone. Their proas are similar to those of the Marian islands. According to the missionaries, they are acquainted with the magnetic needle, a circumstance which would lead us to infer some ancient intercourse with the Chinese, or with the Arabians. The language probably varies from one group to another. The missionaries found in it a considerable resemblance to the Tagal, and consequently the Malay language, but they give some words in which we perceive an affinity to the Arabic; such as *eli* for spirit. Even in this remote corner of the world, the practice of negro slavery is known. It is said that twenty-five Spanish negroes left in one of the islands have produced a mixed breed, which has subsequently spread to another. We are informed that the inhabitants of Ulea are the most civilized. Hogoloo, the largest of the Carolines, must be about eighty miles long, and forty broad. Yap ranks next to it, occupying the western extremity of the chain.

Use of the compass.

Captain Wilson returning from the South Sea, after leaving the English missionaries, sailed by the south of the Caroline archipelago, in the 7th degree of north latitude. Here he visited some islands, and among others, a large group which he called "the Thirteen Islands;" the most southerly of which is in 7° 16′ of north latitude, and 144° 30′ of east longitude. The inhabitants are copper coloured, the women of a pale olive; their lips rather large, their faces broad, and their hair black and long. Their idiom differs from that of the Pelew islands, which are near them[1]. They sell cords of great strength, made of a kind of rush; they wear a sort of girdle resembling a Spanish scarf, and conical hats like those of the Chinese,

Islands seen by Captain Wilson.

[1] Missionary Voyage in the Duff, p. 301.

BOOK LVIII. which are also known in the Philippine islands. A hundred and fifty canoes were seen, each containing seven men.

MULGRAVE ISLANDS. From this we pass on to the long chain of the Mulgrave Islands, discovered by Marshall and Gilbert in 1788. We only know their positions, and their English names. They are mostly low, and produce cocoas, oranges, and cabbage palms. Their copper coloured inhabitants seem to be of a hospitable character, and able seamen[k]. This chain is connected with the Carolines, by the Pescadores, or Fishers' Islands, and probably with the other archipelagos of Polynesia by chains still unknown, where we must search for the islands of Jesus, the Solitary, and some others seen by Quiros and Mendana. We know exactly the position of the two islands, St. Augustine, and Cocal, which have been lately visited. They indicate a chain in the south. The island "de la Gente Hermosa," *i. e.* of the Fair Nation, will be one day re-discovered. It was seen by Quiros, at a distance of 4432 miles from Lima, and in 10° 20′ of latitude. The inhabitants, remarkable for their whiteness, sail in double canoes, and build elegant huts of the trunks of palm trees[l].

Islands little known.

All the seas west from the Navigators' Islands, towards Solomon's group, seem to contain a number of detached islands. The most remarkable of them is that of Rotuma, the Taumaco of Quiros. Captain Wilson, returning from his missionary voyage, landed here, and tells us that the fertility and population of that detached island were amazing. In a space less than an English mile long, 200 houses were counted, besides others which must have been concealed by the trees. Pigs, poultry, and fruits were in great abundance, and it formed an excellent place of refreshment. According to Quiros, it is 138 miles from Terra del Spirito Santo. The language of the New He-

Taumaco or Rotuma Island.

[k] Gilbert, in Forster's Magazine, I. 200—206.

[l] Quiros, Viajero universal, XVII. p. 177.

brides, and that of the Friendly Islands, seem to be known here, for the chief took the name of Taurik, evidently the title Terik, given to the chiefs of the Friendly Islands, and likewise that of Toomai, which was probably the word Tomar, signifying "Friend" in the language of the isle of Tanna[m]. The adjoining islands to the west were called Temelfica, Indeni, and Manci; the last contained a volcano. Quiros saw several, but gave their position vaguely. The inhabitants of Tomaco were acquainted with Mallicolo, and drew by means of pebbles, a chart of the neighbouring archipelagos.

FEYJEE ISLANDS.

More to the south is the large group called the Feyjees, or Prince William's Islands. The Feyjeans have the reputation of being cannibals. They are more industrious than the people of Tongataboo, according to the acknowledgment of the latter, who, notwithstanding, have subjugated them. Such of these islands as Captain Wilson saw in 1796, were of ordinary elevation, covered with cocoa trees to the summit, and surrounded by extensive and dangerous reefs. The missionary ship was nearly lost in broad day light and calm weather, by coming in contact with a reef of which no previous warning was presented.

FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

Sailing eastward, we fall in with the hills and plains which compose the archipelago of the FRIENDLY ISLANDS. This division might be extended to Feyjee in the west, to the Cocoa, and Traitor's Islands in the north, to Savage Islands in the east, and to Pylstaert in the south. Within these boundaries the Friendly Archipelago is very extensive, as it includes more than a hundred islands and islets. It ranks nearly the first archipelago in Polynesia, for the industry of its inhabitants, and the degree of political order which prevails in it.

Particulars of Tongataboo.

The leading island is that which is called Tongataboo, or "The Consecrated Island." It is one of the most southerly.

[m] Forster, Voyage, II. 231. Quiros, l. c. 174.

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Navigators have described it in the minutest manner. Yet were it not for the account of Labillardière, and the English missionaries, we should know very little about it. The country does not in general afford that magnificent sort of landscape which arises from a multitude of mountains, valleys, plains, rivulets, and cascades; but it displays a spectacle of the most abundant fertility.

Climate. Seasons.

The most frequent winds are those between the south and the east; and, when they are moderate, the sky is generally clear. When they become stronger, the atmosphere is loaded with clouds, but it is not foggy, and it frequently rains. According to the account of the missionaries, earthquakes are very frequent. The foliage is subject to little or no sensible change in the course of the seasons, each falling leaf being replaced by another, so that there is a universal and continual spring. The missionaries found the air very healthy, but colder than they had been led to expect.

Rocky foundation.

A coral rock, the only kind which is seen on the coast, is the basis of the island. There is scarcely any other stone to be found, except a species of *lapis Lydius*, of which the natives make their hatchets. Though in several places the coral shoots above the surface of the country, the soil is generally thick. Under the vegetable mould lies a stratum of clay. M. Labillardière has given a view of the botany of this island. Under the shade of the forest grow the *Tacca pinnatifida*, the *Mussœnda frondosa*, the *Abrus precatorius*, and the pepper plant, which the inhabitants use for making the pungent beverage called *Kava*. They make mats of the *Pandanus ordoratissimus*. The *Hibiscus tiliaceus* springs spontaneously on the borders of the cultivated grounds, and close by the sea side. Of its bark stuffs are made, which are much inferior in beauty to those of the paper mulberry. The species of cotton called *Gossypium religiosum* grows in the marshy grounds, but is not applied to any use by the inhabitants. Sandal-wood is also found here, and a strong kind of nutmeg des-

titute of any aromatic quality [n]. The birds and insects are in great number. Multitudes of the rarest shells are found among the reefs.

Government.

The island of Tongataboo is divided into three sovereignties; Ahifo in the north, Mooa in the centre, and Ahodshi in the south-east [o]. Each of these districts has its sovereign. The reigning family of Mooa has the name of Footta-faihi, the name also of one of the national gods; the Footta-faihis seem to have been once absolute sovereigns of the island, and still preside in the sacrifices. But the Deugona-gabula, or prince of the northern canton, has latterly assumed the political ascendency. All the chiefs of the adjoining islands enjoy a despotic authority, but they do homage, and pay tribute to the State of Tongataboo. Even the islanders of Feyjee, so formidable in Captain Cook's time, have submitted to the yoke of Tongataboo. The power of this state extends in the opposite direction to the confines of the Navigators' Archipelago. Their fleet of war-boats is more respectable than that of the Otaheitans, and probably their navigation extends as far as Terra del Spirito Santo. They gave Captain Cook a long list of the islands which they knew.

Character and manners.

The people of Tongataboo sacrifice many human victims; and, notwithstanding their ideas of property, they make no scruple in stealing from strangers. M. Labillardière gives these islanders in general a much more depraved and barbarous character than would have been supposed due, from the accounts of Cook and Forster. He saw assassinations committed among them, accompanied by circumstances of the grossest perfidy [p]. Yet the more modern picture given by the missionaries does not altogether correspond with that of Labillardière. "The inhabitants of the Friendly Islands," according to them,

[n] Labillardière, Voyage, t. II. 101. p. 105. &c.

[o] Missionary Voyage, chap. XVI.

[p] Labillardière, tom. II. p. 109.

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"are deserving of the name which Cook has given them. Since the meaning of it has been explained to them, they seem to be greatly pleased with it. They exercise among themselves an astonishing degree of liberality. For a space of four months, we neither saw nor heard of the slightest quarrel occurring among them." Infanticide and several other Otaheitan institutions are unknown among them, conjugal infidelity among the upper classes is severely punished, at least in the person of the seducer. The women are almost in a state of slavery. Polygamy is a prerogative of the chiefs. One of the missionaries here was lately converted into a pagan and a savage; but four years were sufficient to deprive him of all relish for the happiness which charmed him so much when contemplated in prospective [q].

Religion. The missionaries believe that these islanders have no separate order of priests, though they have a multitude of deities, and a public form of worship. They have two Mythology. great *natchés*, or religious festivals; one to implore the protection of Footta-faihi, for the newly planted fruits; the other at the end of harvest, to testify their gratitude to the same deity. Each person kills and brings the animal which he offers in sacrifice. Calla-Feilatonga is sovereign of the waves and the winds. The god Mauwi bears the island on his back; and the earthquakes take place when he tires of his load, and makes attempts to throw it off. The god of pleasure, Higgolayò, collects round him the souls of his worshippers in a paradise much resembling that of Mahomet.

Dwellings. The private and public buildings are much inferior to those of Otaheite, both for convenience and elegance. But they make up for this by the superior construction of Boats. their boats. Their mats are so much better than those of Otaheite, that the sailors export them to the latter island, as an article of commerce. They also manufacture glossy stuffs, some of which are striped, some in squares,

[q] Narrative of a Four Years' Residence at Tongataboo. London, 1811.

and various other figures. Baskets, combs, and other little productions of female industry, are made with taste and elegance. The fishing lines and hooks of these islanders are as good as those of Europe. Tongataboo has a large and excellent harbour, which admits of being well fortified.

The island of Eooa is called Middelburg by Tasman. It is a high land of a delightful appearance, well wooded, fertile, and well provided with fresh water. Though the soil is generally clayey, the coral rock is seen shooting up to a height of 300 feet above the level of the sea. Middelburg Island.

Anamooka, or Rotterdam, is the largest island of a group situated to the north of Tongataboo. Anamooka is, like Tongataboo, composed of a coral rock, covered with good soil. It contains a greater quantity of bread-fruit and Siam oranges than Tongataboo, and vegetables of all kinds grow here with greater vigour. The fields are not inclosed by so many hedges, nor so regular and well made; but the roads are covered with tufted bowers, which display beautiful flowers, and give out delicious perfumes. The numerous points of view afforded by the little elevations, and different groups of trees contribute also to adorn and diversify the appearance of this country. Rotterdam Island.

Tafooa contains a volcano which the natives consider as the abode of a divinity. Other islands.

Vavao is the Mayorga of Maurelle, a Spanish navigator. Latté is another island to which he has given its native name. That which he calls Amargura, is most probably Hamooa. These islands are very fertile, populous, and at least as far advanced in civilization as Tongataboo.

To the south of the Friendly Islands, Vasquez and Kermadec islands mark the continuation of the submarine chain to the east-side of New Zealand.

To the north of the Friendly Islands, we distinguish among some small insular countries, the picturesque island of Horne, the fertility of which is extolled by Le- Horne island.

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maire and Schooten. Its chief wore a crown of feathers. It is probably the *Enfant perdu* of Bougainville [r].

NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS.

As we continue our voyage to the east, the first large archipelago that claims our attention is that of the NAVIGATORS, discovered by Bougainville, and examined by La Perouse. Those which have been visited are seven in number, viz. Pola at the west end, then Galinassa, Oyolava, Maoona, Fanfoo, Leone, and Opoon. The inhabitants are acquainted with three others situated to the south-west. In Arrowsmith's learned chart of the Great Ocean, Pola is called *Otawhee*; Oyolava, *Oatooah*; Maoona, *Vootooillah*; and Opoon, *Toomalooah*. Tootooilla is found in the list of islands given to Captain Cook by the inhabitants of Tongataboo [s], a circumstance which adds some weight to the English nomenclature. But the islands have probably different names in different native dialects. This archipelago has received the name of the Navigators' Islands, because the inhabitants had a great many boats, and displayed an admirable degree of skill in the management of them, a circumstance common to the whole of Polynesia, and only applied particularly to this archipelago, because the inhabitants seemed to spend a greater part of their time in their canoes than others, and to have a greater number.

Soil. Mountains.

The Navigators' Islands consist of high land. Their central mountains, the beautiful plains on the sea side, and the encircling coral reefs, give these islands a character of resemblance to the Society Islands. Maoona is a very fertile island [t]. The French frigates which visited it were surrounded by 200 boats, filled with a variety of provisions, consisting of birds, pigs, pigeons, and fruit. In twenty hours Maoona furnished 500 pigs, and an immense quantity of fruit. The island is covered with cocoa, bread-fruit, and orange trees. The groves are enlivened by the

Productions of Maoona.

[r] Voyage Autour du Monde, i. 24.
[s] Cook's Third Voyage.
[t] Voyage de la Perouse, t. III. p. 361.

murmurs of numerous cascades, and peopled with wood-pigeons and turtle doves. Various pebbles are found among the coral rocks. BOOK LVIII.

The women were very handsome, their forms were regular and highly pleasing, and their manners were free. A scarf, made of leaves, serves them for a girdle. Their hair is adorned with flowers, and entwined with green ribbon. They might pass for nymphs or dryads: even their colour is not far removed from tints that are often admired. The men are above the ordinary stature, uncommonly strong, and very fierce. They despised the diminutive size of the French. They treat their women like slaves. La Perouse describes them as exceedingly dissolute in the intercourse of the sexes [u]. The situation of their villages is as delightful as fancy can picture. They are partially seen half buried in the bosom of rich natural orchards. The huts, supported on rows of strong pillars, are covered with cocoa leaves. The inhabitants live on pork, dog's flesh, birds, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, bananas, guavas, and oranges. They set little value on iron and cloths, being fonder of glass beads than any thing else that the Europeans offer them [x]. Inhabitants.

It was at Maoona that Captain Langle, Lamanon the naturalist, and nine sailors, were massacred by the inhabitants, probably because the Captain gave glass ornaments to some chiefs, and neglected others. La Perouse, cruelly undeceived in the favourable ideas which had been given him of the character of the savages, says on this occasion, "I am a thousand times more angry with the philosophers who praise the savages, than with the savages themselves. The unfortunate Lamanon, whom they massacred, told me the day before his death that the Indians were better people than ourselves [y]." Both views are equally superfi- Disaster of Messrs. Langle and Lamanon.

[u] Les vieillards, retenant par force les jeunes filles, servaient de prêtres et d'autel au culte de Vénus, pendant que des matrones célébraient par des chants ces noces brutales. Voyage de M. de la Perouse, t. III. p. 275.

[x] Idem. Ibid, p. 282.

[y] Idem, t. IV. p. 439.

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cial. Savage and civilized people differ little in their conduct when placed in similar circumstances. At Oyolava M. de la Perouse saw the largest village in all Polynesia. From the appearance of its smoke, it might have been taken for a city. The sea was covered with boats, manned with people as tall as those of Maoona.

Oyolava island.

Though the islanders of this group are distinguished by a ferocity not observed in any other part of Polynesia, they are very industrious, and display much skill and ingenuity. With simple tools of basalt, they succeed in giving an exquisite polish to their works in wood. They not only make cloth of bark, but form from it a good yarn, which they undoubtedly procure from a flax resembling that of New Zealand. A native of the Philippines, on board the French vessel, understood their dialect, which must therefore be of Malayan derivation.

Population.

According to the same navigator, Oyolava is at least equal to Otaheite in beauty, extent, fertility, and population. He supposes that the whole archipelago contains 100,000 inhabitants, which we may reduce to one-tenth, and probably come nearer the truth.

On Eastern Polynesia.

If it should some time hence be thought eligible to divide Polynesia into natural regions, the Pelew, Marian, Caroline, and Mulgrave Islands, would be included in Western Polynesia, the centre of which would be Hogoloo. The Navigators', the Friendly, and the Feyjée, with all those lying between St. Augustine and the Kermadecs, might be called Central Polynesia. This region is separated by an open sea from Eastern Polynesia, of which Otaheite is the centre. We proceed to make this celebrated island a station from which we shall obtain a view of Eastern Polynesia, of which it also furnishes a specimen of extensive application.

Society Islands.

The Society Islands have formed the subject of more writings than many a kingdom of Europe. Every reader has admired the charms of Queen Oberea, and viewed in

imagination the festivals of Pomarre. The Otaheitans are better known to us than the inhabitants of Sardinia or of Corsica.

Though the name of the Society Islands was originally given by Captain Cook only to the group of Ulietea and Huaheiné, it has since received a more extensive application on Cook's own authority. It comprehends Otaheite with its dependencies, and, with some, though improperly, several remote and detached islands, as far as Toobooai in the south, and Palmerston Island in the west.

Description of Otaheite.

Otaheite has merited the title of Queen of the Pacific Ocean. It is composed of two conical mountains, united by a marshy isthmus. The large peninsula is of a circular form; its diameter is twenty-four miles. The small peninsula, in the south-west, is an oval, sixteen miles long, and eight or ten broad. The whole circumference of the island is 108 miles, according to the chart given by the English missionaries.

Soil.

Between the mountains and the sea, a low stripe intervenes, varying in breadth. In some places, especially in the north-east, the rocks project over the sea. In the plains and in the valleys by which the mountain is intersected, the ground is covered with a thick blackish slime, and extremely fertile. As we ascend the hills, the rich earth of the valleys is exchanged for veins of clay and marl of different colours, lying over strata of a soft brownish sandstone. Basalt seems to predominate in the higher mountains. On the side of the great mountain is a very deep fresh lake. Matavia, on the north side of the island, is considered as the principal harbour. On the south-east side is another, called Langola, which is equally good and safe. On all sides of the island rivers are seen descending in beautiful cascades.

Ports and harbours.

Climate. Seasons.

The situation of this island, in the midst of an immense ocean, far from all extended lands, renders its heat far from insupportable. The missionaries say that the dry and rainy seasons vary even in the different districts of

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this small country. In the north, the bread-fruit harvest begins in November and ends in January; but, on the south side, it begins in January and continues till November.

Vegetable productions.

All the vegetable species peculiar to Oceanica grow in Otaheite in abundance, and of the best quality. There are reckoned eight varieties of the bread-fruit [a], and fifteen of banana [a]. The very great perfection of the fruit shows that the trees have been cultivated here for several ages. The *Spondias dulcis*, called *Evi* in Otaheite, nowhere produces apples of a richer yellow, or more delicious taste. The sugar cane, which is called *To*, is of a superior sort to that of the East Indies, and now receives the preference in all the colonies. The bark of the *Morus papyrifera* furnishes the material of a fine and soft cloth. The inhabitants have treated lightly all European cultures offered to them, with the exception of the tobacco plant, which is valued for its flowers [b]. There are several kinds of wood fit for carpentry and cabinet work. The missionaries give the native names of some species, which equal acajoo in beauty and ebony in hardness. There is some sandal-wood, both white and black. It grows only on the mountains, and is in no great quantity. The air is animated with birds, and the sea with fish, without number. The

Animals.

pig, of the same variety which is known in Siam [c]; and the dog, which is delicately fed, furnish good animal food.

Inhabitants.

The complexion of the Otaheitans is olive, inclining to a copper colour. The men, constantly exposed to the sun, are very dark; but the women are only a shade darker than the brunettes of Andalusia and Sicily. They have fine black eyes, regular and white teeth, a soft skin, and limbs of graceful proportions. Their jet black hair is perfumed and ornamented with flowers. But the habit which

[a] Bligh's Voyage to the South Sea, p. 109.

[b] Wilson, Missionary Voyage, p. 378.

[c] Voyage des Missionaires Anglais, p. 502, trad. allem.

[d] Forster, Observations, &c. p. 167, (in German.)

they contract from their infancy of widening the face, expanding the mouth, and flattening the nose, gives them a masculine air which mars their natural charms. The chiefs are taller than the common people, few of them under six feet. The dress of the two sexes is nearly the same, except that the men wear the *maro*, a piece of cloth which covers the waist, and passes between the limbs. Another oblong piece, with a hole to let through the head, hangs before and behind; a third is wrapped about the middle, and a sort of square mantle covers the whole. Clothes.

The Otaheitans practise circumcision. They tattoo their bodies not merely for the sake of ornament, and to please their vanity, but as connected with the political and religious institutions of the nation. Individuals of both sexes are not considered as independent of parental authority, or capable of forming civil connections, till they have received the last of a series of tattooings. The different acts of this operation are regarded as sacrifices agreeable to the gods; and the instrument with which a prince has been tattooed, is deposited in the *moraï* of his ancestors. The society of the *arreoy* has, like that of free masons, several degrees, which are distinguished by different forms of the tattoo [d]. Their houses are only used as places of rest during the night, and of retreat during extreme solar heat. They are very elegantly-shaped huts, consisting of small wooden pillars, arranged in an oval form, and supporting a roof of palm leaves. The sides are sometimes covered with mats, sometimes open. The floor is strewed with hay, over which are laid mats, often very beautiful. These rustic mansions are scattered over all the plain, and in the valleys, in a manner the most agreeable and picturesque, in the midst of smiling plantations. The large palms tower above the rest of the trees. The banana displays its broad leaves, and here and there are seen specimens of its fruit ready for eating. Other trees, surmounted by dark green boughs, bear golden apples, which, in Circumcision. Tattooing. Houses. Plantations.

[d] Missionary Voyage.

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flavour and juiciness, resemble pine-apples. The intermediate spaces are filled with mulberry trees, yams, and sugar canes. The huts are also surrounded with odoriferous shrubs, such as the *gardenia*, the *guettarda*, and the *calophyllum*.

Castes.

In Otaheite the nobility who possess hereditary rights are distinguished from the people who are their dependents, without being in any degree their slaves.

The *Eri-Rahei*, or sacred chief, is the hereditary monarch of the state, which in 1797 comprehended the island of Otaheite, and those of Eimeo, Tethuroa, and Maitéa, with claims on Ulietéa and Otaha. As soon as the *eri-rahei* becomes the father of a male child, the child succeeds to the crown, and the father is then only regent.

Succession to the throne.

An apron or *maro* of red feathers is the badge of the royal dignity. With this the young sovereign is invested in the midst of a solemn ceremony, in which the most remarkable thing is a formal harangue delivered to the people by the state orator, an office generally filled by one of the chief priests. Unhappily, human sacrifices make an essential part of this ceremony. One of the eyes of the victim is offered to the king, by a priest, who addresses him in a long discourse, probably on a religious subject.

Nobles, lords, farmers, &c.

The *eris* are the hereditary proprietors of large estates. They govern the districts; and they seem to be a sort of sovereigns in their own territory, though dependent on the *eri-rahei*. The *towhas* are generally kinsmen of the *eris*. They govern some subdivisions of the great districts, or live at the courts of the *eris*. The *rattiras* are the possessors of estates. Their authority seems confined to the rights conferred by simple free property. The *manahoonis* are farmers without property in the soil, but enjoying personal freedom and complete power over the property which they acquire. They have it in their power to move from one landlord to another. The domestics are called *towtows*, and those who are in the service of females are called *toutis*. These last, like their mistresses, are excluded from all religious ceremonies. None of the commoners can rise to a higher rank than that

of *towha* at most. The nobles, or eris, preserve all the dignity of their hereditary rank, though the monarch should see proper to deprive them of the management of their districts.

Rights of property.

The missionaries say that property is held sacred; that the last will of the possessor is scrupulously executed, and that his goods are given up, either to his children, or to his *tayo*, (an adopted kinsman;) that estates are bounded by land-marks of stones, and that theft, violence, and even verbal injuries are severely punished [e].

Religion. A Trinity.

The Otaheitans believe in a sort of trinity, called *Tani, te médooa*, the Father; *Oromattow, toua ti te meidi*, God in the Son; and *Taroa-mannau, te hooa*, the Bird, or Spirit.

Inferior deities.

This great divinity resides in the palace of heaven, in the *Torova*, with a number of other divinities or Etooas, who are all designated under the name of *Fhanaw po*, or the children of night. Their genealogy, like all the theogonies in the world, is a system of cosmography in an allegorical dress. The islands of the ocean are the remains of one great continent or island, which the gods in their anger broke in pieces. These great divinities have one common temple in the district of Oparre, but they are only to be invoked in times of public calamity. The daily prayers are addressed to the inferior *etooas*. Every family has its *thi*, or protecting genius, from whom it expects all the blessings and all the evils of this life. The souls of the dead, devoured by sacred birds, undergo a purification, and become divinities which exert a powerful influence on the lot of the living. The Otaheitans firmly believe that the soul is immortal, and that according to its degree of virtue and of piety, each will enjoy different degrees of honour and happiness. So very religious are they, that they never approach the sacred places but with profound respect. In the eyes of this susceptible people all nature is animated; the air, the mountains, the rivers, the sea, are peopled with spirits. The *tahooras*, or priests,

A future state.

[e] Missionary Voyage, Appendix, ch. II.

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are very numerous and powerful. There are certain occasions on which all the chiefs officiate. The selection of human victims to be offered to the gods always falls on criminals, who are only put to death while asleep; a refined specimen of considerate humanity modifying the dictates of a barbarous superstition.

Moraïs. Funerals.

The highest ambition of an Otaheitan is, to have a splendid *moraï*, or family tomb. The funerals, especially those of the chiefs, have a solemn and affecting character. Songs are sung. The mourners, with shark's teeth, draw blood from their bodies, which, as it flows, mingles with their tears; offerings placed on the bier, mock fights, religious abstinences, or days of fasting and of rest, are all employed to give a sensible expression of the public grief The *tapapow*, or sheds, under which the dead bodies remain exposed till they dry, and the walled and paved *moraïs*, or cemeteries, in which the bones are deposited, are placed in romantic situations, where the shadows of funereal trees, the frowning faces of the rocks, and the murmurs of rivulets, invite to retirement and melancholy.

Behaviour of the women.

Those who have represented the women of Otaheite as venal wantons have done them injustice. We are now informed that "it is difficult in this country to have private meetings, either with the married or unmarried women, excepting the girls among the lowest orders, and that many among these also are chaste and modest. There is indeed a class of prostitutes, as in all other countries: perhaps the proportion of them here is larger than ordinary. Of this class were the women who went on board the European vessels, or frequented the camps which their crews pitched on shore[f]."

Lasciviousness.

The English missionaries, who are members of the most austere sect of Methodists, say that they never witnessed any public indecency. They say that the lascivious dances are performed by none but giddy young persons, and

[f] Wilson's Missionary Voyage.

that even these, beyond the circle of the theatre, do not indulge in any gestures in the least degree offensive.

Child births.

The general conduct of the Otaheitan women, as mothers and wives, is sufficiently creditable to human nature. They bear their children with extreme ease, and make tender and assiduous nurses. The ornament which they esteem most valuable is a wig made of the hair of their deceased relations.—Polygamy is not allowed among this people. But a detestable political institution formed, till very lately, a dark shade in the moral picture. Under the name of Arreoys, a great number of the Otaheitan nobles of both sexes had formed themselves into singular communities, in which all the women were common to all the men, and all the children born were destroyed.

Society of Arreoys.

Population.

From this it is not surprising to find, that, according to a calculation made by the missionaries, the population of the island had of late years decreased, and does not now exceed 16,000 souls, making an average of 250 to the square league. The only inhabited places are the plain and the low valleys.

Industry.

The Otaheitans manufacture handsome cloths and mats. They seem to have once navigated a great part of the ocean; but their navigation has declined, and the island has been miserably reduced by the devastating effects of civil wars.

Remarkable moral revolution.

The moral character of this and the adjoining islands is now, however, undergoing a remarkable change. The steady exertions of the missionaries have been followed by decided impressions in favour of the Christian religion, and the manners, and even the dress, of civilized Europe. Pomarre, the late king, abandoned his idols, and shipped them off for London, where they now figure in the Missionary Museum. For the Missionaries they express a uniform and high respect. Those of them who have heard their doctrines have ranked themselves as converts, and those who know them only by report express an eagerness to profit by their instructions. The latter have indeed suffered a serious loss in the death of Pomarre, their powerful protector; and some anxiety is felt for the peaceful continuation of their labours under the succeeding government, which is administered in the name of a minor. But they enjoy the advantage of a strong popular tide in their favour.

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Account of the other islands.

The other Society Islands greatly resemble Otaheite, though smaller. At Huaheiné the fruits ripen some weeks sooner than at Otaheite. This island has two excellent harbours [g].—Ulietea is larger; its inhabitants have darker complexions, and a more ferocious character. This island, and that of Otaha, are surrounded by one common reef.—The inhabitants of Borabora, fifteen or twenty years ago, were formidable to all the neighbouring islands. They had conquered Ulietea and Huaheiné; but their power is now at an end.—Maitea, the most easterly, is the entrepôt for the tribute of pearls which the Otaheitans raise in the archipelago of low islands [h].—Eimeo possesses two of the best harbours in the whole ocean.—The inaccessible Tethuroa serves as a citadel to the king of Otaheite, for the preservation of his treasure.—Mapija, or Lord Howe's Island, and Genuavra, or Scilly, are only inhabited by penguins, and other sea fowl [i].

Scattered islands to the south.

To the south-west and south-east of the Society Archipelago, a long chain of widely separated islands extends, beginning with Palmerston and ending with Easter Island. They might be called the "Austral Sporades." The most westerly group comprehends Palmerston, Wateoo, Mangea, and some islets. In the second group we find Toobooai, which contains robust and savage inhabitants; Ohiteroa, which is rich in casuarina trees, and a place which shows much human industry; and, lastly, the "*High* Island" of Captain Broughton. To the north-east and east are Gloucester Island, St. Paul's Conversion, Michael, and many others little known. In the south we distinguish Oparo, the inhabitants of which speak the Polynesian language, but do not tattoo their bodies.—Pitcairn Island is now peopled by the children of the mutinous sailors of Captain Bligh, whose fathers had escaped the search of the English. The fate of these sailors themselves was sufficiently dismal. They had married Otaheitan women, whose brothers in one night murdered them, only one

[g] Spanish Voyages to Otaheite, in Viajero Universal, XVII. p. 324.

[h] Ibid. p. 323. See also Wilson's Missionary Voyage, Introduction, p. 27.

[i] Viajero Universal, p. 327.

escaping, whose name by his own account was Adams. On the following night, the Otaheitan widows of the English inflicted dreadful vengeance, by murdering all their brothers, who had committed the first bloody deed. Their children grew up under the fostering care of Adams, who, officiating as their patriarch, has made them an orderly and simple tribe, speaking the English language, and imbued with the sober principles of the more respectable portion of the lower orders of the English. Their number, when visited by the Briton, was forty-eight, all of mixed English and Otaheitan blood, except young Christian, the son of Captain Bligh's lieutenant, whose mother appears to have been English. They have a great antipathy to the natives of the other islands, whom they call "the Black Fellows," which has been generated by the accounts which they have received of the murder of their fathers [k].

Easter Islands.

The last of the Sporades are Ducie, and the celebrated Easter Island, the identity of which with Davis's land is not yet fully decided. In this arid volcanic isle, we find a sort of platforms on which shapeless columns are erected, sometimes fifteen feet high, with a rudely carved bust at top, the face of which is five feet long. It is made of a very porous light and red lava. These statues seem to have a degree of resemblance with the sculptures of the island of Uliétéa. The heads have the character of the Polynesian race of men. The language, manners, and dress of the inhabitants of this island also resemble those of the other islands. There is nothing about them of Peruvian aspect. As the islands lying nearer to the American continent have been found altogether uninhabited, it is evident that the nations of America never contributed to the peopling of Polynesia.

Low islands.

In passing from Easter Island to the Marquesas, we must go through a singular region, sprinkled with small islands, which are low, sandy, and encircled with coral reefs.

[k] See Shillibeer's Narrative of the Briton's Voyage to Pitcairn's Island, p. 77—97.

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Dangerous Archipelago.

The islands composing this truly "Dangerous Archipelago," present strange forms; the names of the Harp, the Bow, and the Chain, express with precision the figure of those to which they are applied. Tiookéa is a large low island. All of them abound with cocoa trees. They produce scurvy-grass, purslain, and various other plants. Dogs which live on fish, and pigs, are found here as in the high islands. The race of men which they contain is the same, but darker in colour. Pearl Island is somewhat remarkable in its physical structure. There are several banks of coral rock, placed one behind another, between the lagoon and the sea. These banks run regularly from south to north. They sometimes rise fifty or sixty feet above the level of the sea. It appears as if violent storms had driven blocks of coral over the outermost banks, and piled them above the innermost. The furrowed cavities which separate these successive banks, are generally sixty feet in breadth, and ten or twelve feet deep[l].

Marquesas Islands.

To the north of the low islands, we find the lofty chain of the Marquesas Islands, the chief of which are Ohitoa, or St. Magdalena; Onateyo, or San Pedro; Ohitahoo, or Santa Christina, and the island of Baux, or Nooaheeva.

Mendana's account of them.

The leading islands in this archipelago were discovered by Mendana, who gave them the name of Gardias de Mendoça, Marquis of Canete, viceroy of Peru. Hence they are sometimes called Mendoça's Islands. If we believe the account of Mendana's discovery, this small archipelago was inhabited by a very fine race of men. The women were remarkable for the beauty of their features; and their colour, though brown, was very agreeable; so that in personal appearance they rivalled the finest women of Lima[m]. These islanders were clothed in elegant stuffs, made of bark, which reached from the breast to the calf

[l] Missionary Voyage, p. 285.

[m] Derbrosses, Hist. de Navig. tom. I. p. 251. Mendana, in the Viajero Universal, XVII. p. 65.

of the leg. They had wooden idols, and boats which held forty people. The air was so dry that linen hung out during the night collected no humidity. The "white fruit" of Mendana seems to have been the bread fruit.

Nature of the land.

The Marquesas do not differ from the Society Islands, except that they have not the beautiful fertile plains which encircle the latter, the hills extending to the margin of the sea. The coral reefs are less extensive, and the harbours which they form are less safe. The soil about the bay of Madre de Dios, or Revolution Islands, consists of ochry clay, and terra puzzolana. The centres of the islands are occupied by piles of rocks resembling ruinous towers. The climate is a little warmer than that of Otaheite. The plants and fruits are nearly the same. The younger Forster says, that he nowhere found the bread fruit so large and so delicious; that it was tender as custard, but a little too sweet; that cocoa nuts however were rare[n]. The English missionaries, on the contrary, found nothing to eat but cocoa nuts; poultry and pigs were rare; the prepared *mahei*, or bread fruit was indifferent; but the scarcity seemed to them to be only temporary[o]. It is their opinion that, even in the fertile islands, such scarcities are rendered frequent by the improvidence of the people. "When they have pork," says Mr. Crook the missionary, "they eat five or six meals per day; and after it is finished, content themselves with vegetables and fish."

Fruits and plants.

The forests are filled with birds of splendid plumage, resembling those of Otaheite.

Inhabitants.

The Marquesans excel all the other tribes in the fine proportions of their forms, and the regularity of their features; and, if they were free from the tattooing process, in which the skin is blackened by numerous black punctures, their complexion would be nothing more than tawny. The tattooing of the Marquesans, however, is remarkable for its regularity and comparative good taste[p]. Their

[n] Cook's Second Voyage. [o] Missionary Voyage, p. 244. p. 260.

[p] Langsdorf, Voyage Autour du Monde. See the Annales des Voyages, XIV. 257.

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hair is of various colours, but never red. Some of the women are almost as white and fair as our European brunettes, and they are less generally tattooed than the men[q]. Their waists are bound round with a long piece of tight stuff, the ends of which passing between the thighs, fold back again, and hang to the middle of the leg. But as their stuffs do not bear moisture, they came on board the Missionary ship in a state which reminded the company of mother Eve. The appetite of the goats in the ship was excited at the sight of the green leaves which they wore, so that they were obliged to make an unsuccessful struggle to prevent their bodies from being completely stripped[r].

Religious ceremonies.

The religious ceremonies are the same as those of Otaheite. Each district has its *Moraï*, where the dead are buried under large stones. They have numerous divinities, some of whose names resemble those of the gods of Otaheite. The women are less subjected to the men than among the Otaheitans. The chiefs indulge in polygamy; they have no great authority among the people.

Manners and customs.

These islanders appear in fact to be without laws, and regulated solely by their customs. The English methodists have undertaken the task of converting these children of nature, by preaching protestantism to them in its austerest form. But they do not appear as yet to have succeeded to the same extent as at Otaheite.

Roggewyn's Archipelago.

By sailing due east from the Marquesas Islands, it is probable that some important discoveries might be made. Perhaps Roggewyn's Archipelago would be re-discovered, consisting of the Baumann Islands, five or six in number; the Roggewyn Islands, which are small; and Tienhoven and Groningen, which are probably as large as Otaheite. These islands, seen in 1772 by Roggewyn, must lie somewhere between the 12th and the 9th parallel of south latitude; but their longitude was very vaguely given. No complete and authentic account of Roggewyn's voyage has

[q] Missionary Voyage.

[r] Missionary Voyage.

been published. This navigator's journals are probably to be found in the archives of the Dutch East India Company. Tupia the Otaheitan said there were several large islands in that direction.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

But the track of Captain Cook takes us off in a different direction. Turning northward, we follow this celebrated navigator to the SANDWICH ISLANDS. It is the most isolated group of all Polynesia, and the north-east extremity of this wide region. The island of Owaïhee, is the largest, being 415 miles in circumference. It obtained a fatal celebrity as the scene of Captain Cook's death, who was killed by the natives on the 14th of February, 1779. A celebrity of a different kind now awaits it as the focus of civilization in Polynesia. The inhabitants have, with the assistance of the English and Americans, built twenty merchant ships, with which they already perform voyages to the north-west coast of America, and even propose to visit Canton.

Inhabitants.

These people sometimes wear their hair straight, sometimes curled as in Europe. They are darker in complexion than the Otaheitans. Captain King describes them as a gentle and benevolent race, less frivolous than the Otaheitans, and not so proud as the inhabitants of the Friendly Islands. They have made some progress in agriculture and manufactures. Yet they sacrifice human victims, though they are not known to be cannibals like the New Zealanders. They go unshaved. Both men and women wear a fan made of cocoa fibres or long feathers to keep off the flies. They are tattooed like the other Polynesians. The women even tattoo the tip of the tongue.

Dress.

They use for clothing a piece of coarse stuff called a *Maro*, prepared in the same manner as at Otaheite. They tie it round the middle, and let it hang down. In battle they wear for armour a closely woven mat thrown over the shoulder. On occasions of great ceremony, the chiefs wear a dress of brilliant feathers manufactured with great art. They live on fish, yams, banana, and the sugar cane. The

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great make use of boars, and dog's flesh. The women wear nothing but a light scarf. Their hair is cut short behind, and put up in front.

Art of swimming.

The art of swimming is quite familiar to them. They glide through the water with uncommon vigour, nimbleness, and dexterity. On the slightest occasion they quit their boats, plunge under water, and emerge along side of another boat at a distance. Women carrying children on the breast have been seen to commit themselves to the waves, when the strength of the surf would not suffer them to land in their boats. They will make a long stretch in swimming without hurting their tender charge. Here, as

Government.

at Otaheite, there is a supreme chief at the head of the government, called Eri-Taboo, whose funeral, when he dies, is honoured by the sacrifice of two of his subjects, and sometimes of a great number. The subjects are divided into three classes, the *Eris*, or district chiefs; the proprietors, who have no political power; and the *Tootoos*, who have neither rank nor property. These degrees of rank are hereditary. Captain Vancouver says, that the king of Owaïhee declared himself vassal to the king of Great Britain.

Climate.

The climate of these islands seems to be more temperate than that of the American islands in the same latitude. The clouds are attracted by the mountains of Owaïhee, and the rain refreshes the interior, while the sun shines on the sea-shore. The wind generally blows from the east, and there are regular refreshing sea and land breezes.

Mountains.

Moonakoa mountain, rises to a prodigious height. Anderson estimates it at 18,000 feet, but his calculation is vague and exaggerated[s]. La Perouse found the soil of the island of Mowee composed of the powder of lava, and other volcanic substances[t]. Vancouver gives a representation of a pretended volcanic crater at Owaïhee.

Animals.

Here as in all similarly situated countries the quadru-

[s] Cook's Third Voyage.

[t] Voyage de La Perouse, t. II. p. 125.

peds are very few in number, consisting only of pigs, dogs, and rats. The dogs are of the same species with those of Otaheite. They have short bent legs, long backs, and straight ears. The birds seem very numerous, but the species not greatly diversified. There are large white pigeons, owls, the common water fowl, and a species of whistling plover. These islands produce sugar canes of extraordinary size, potatoes, bread-fruit trees, bananas, cocoas, and sandal-wood. All these productions however, are less abundant than in the southern islands. The plantations are kept in admirable order. The waters used for irrigating the fields are managed by means of ditches and aqueducts [u].

Plants.

The first view of the island of Mowu appeared quite enchanting to M. de la Perouse. The water fell in cascades from the sides of the mountains, and a thousand rivulets watered a coast which was so covered with houses, that a space of eight or ten miles seemed to be one continued village. But the habitable part was only about three miles broad, and the south and west presented nothing to the eye but steep and barren rocks [x]. Morotoi, to the west-north-west of Mowu, is destitute of wood, and its chief produce is yams. It has neither fresh water nor good anchorage [y]. Ranai contains some fertile districts. Woahoo seems to be one of the most fertile and most beautiful islands of this archipelago. The inhabitants of the island of Atowi excel their neighbours in the skill with which they manage their plantations. In the low districts, these plantations are intersected by deep and regular ditches. The hedges are exceedingly neat, and almost elegant. The roads across them would, for completeness, do honour to European engineers [z]. But the fine plantations which Cook admired have been horribly devastated. Beautiful pines are carried hither by the Ocean, and formed into canoes by the inhabitants [a].

Particular islands.

[u] Vancouver. Manuel Quimper, in the Mercurio Peruano, VI. p. 2, &c.
[x] Cook's Third Voyage. La Perouse, t. II. p. 3. Vancouver.
[y] Vancouver. [z] Cook. [a] Vancouver.

BOOK LVIII.

Table of the Geographical Positions of Eastern Oceanica, or Polynesia.

Places.	Latitude.	Longitude East or West from London.	Authorities.
MARIAN ISLANDS.	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Assumption Island.	19 45 0 N.	145 35 30 E.	La Pérouse.
Tinian (island)	14 55 0 Id.	146 0 0	Wallis.
Guam harbour . .	13 26 0	0 0 0	Crozet.
Sulphur Island . .	24 48 0	141 12 0	Gore and King.
CAROLINE ARCHIPELAGO.			
Palaos, or Pelew Islands . .	6 0 0 8 20 0	134 0 0 135 36 0	Wilson's Chart.
The Thirteen Islands, (the most southerly)	7 16 0	144 30 0	Wilson.
The Twenty-nine Islands discovered by the Pala frigate .	3 30 0	156 20 0	Spanish Journals.
Yap	10 0 0	138 30 0	Arrowsmith's Map.
Lamurca	8 25 0	149 0 0	Idem.
Hogoloo	9 0 0	158 5 0	Idem.
THE MULGRAVES.			
Hooper's Island .	0 3 0 S.	173 43 0	Gilbert and Marshall.
Maslar Islands . .	1 42 0 N.	175 1 0	Idem.
South Point of the Mulgraves . .	5 58 0	170 3 0	Idem.
Calvert Islands . .	8 58 0	171 41 0	Idem.
St. Augustine . .	5 30 0 S.	177 50 0	Maurelli, (doubtful.)
Rotumahoo or Taumaco	12 29 0	176 57 0	Edwards.
FLYJEE ARCHIPELAGO, &c.			
Duff's Reef . . .	16 30 0	180 41 0	Wilson.
Hemskerk Shallows	17 19 0	179 45 0 W.	Tasman, (longitude too far east.)
Turtle Island . .	19 48 0		Cook.

Table of Geographical Positions, &c.—continued.

Places.	Latitude.	Longitude East or West from London.	Authorities.
ARCHIPELAGO OF THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Tongataboo, (French observatory) . .	21 7 35 S.	175 19 11 W.	Rossel.
Eooa or Middleburg Island	21 16 30	174 50 0	Cook.
Pylstaert	22 26 0	175 58 45	Idem.
Anamoka or Rotterdam	20 15 0	174 47 47	Idem. Tasman.
Tofoa	19 45 0	175 5 45	La Perouse.
Latté	18 14 0	174 54 45	Idem.
Tavao or Mayorca .	18 34 0	173 54 45	Idem. Maurelli.
Amargura . . .	18 0 0	175 9 45	Idem. Idem.
Horne Island . .	14 18 0	178 18 45	Wilson and Burney.
Enfant Perdu, (the same?)	14 22 0	176 42 45	Bougainville.
Wallis's Island . .	13 22 0	176 15 30	Edwards.
Isle of Cocoas . .	15 50 0	176 21 45	Burney and Shooten.
NAVIGATORS' ARCHIPELAGO.			
Opoon (east point) .	14 9 10	169 0 35	La Perouse.
Leone (south point)	14 7 53	169 16 7	Idem.
Fanfooé (east point)	14 5 23	169 18 12	Idem.
Maoona (idem) . .	14 16 40	170 1 17	Idem.
Oyolava (NNE. point)	13 51 5	171 41 48	Idem.
Calinasse (N. point)	13 45 0	171 48 18	Idem.
Pola (west point) .	13 32 0	172 34 15	Idem.
Palmerston Island .	18 4 0	162 9 45	Cook.
Mangiea	21 57 0	157 22 45	Idem.
AUSTRAL ISLANDS.			
Tobooai	23 25 0	148 16 45	Idem.
Oparo	27 36 0	144 0 17	Idem.
Pitcairn Island . .	25 2 0	132 25 45	Carteret.
Ducie	24 40 30	124 39 15	Edwards.
Easter Island . .	27 8 13	109 43 16	Cook. La Perouse. Fleurieu.
SOCIETY ISLANDS.			
Otaheite (Venus point)	17 29 17	149 33 15	Wales.
Idem, Port Oaitepiha	17 46 28	149 15 9	Idem.

BOOK LVIII.

Table of Geographical Positions, &c.—continued.

Places.	Latitude.	Longitude East or West from London.	Authorities.
	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Maitea	17 53 0 S.	148 9 45 W.	Idem.
Eimeo	17 30 0	147 0 0	Cook.
Idem	0 0 0	149 29 45	Wilson.
Huaheine . . .	16 43 0	151 6 45	Cook's Chart.
Ulitea	16 46 0	151 38 45	Idem.
Borabora	16 27 0	151 52 45	Idem.
Lord Howe's Island	16 46 0	154 12 45	Wallis.
Scilly Island . .	16 28 0	155 24 45	Idem.
Low Islands, or The Dangerous Archipelago.			
Whitsunday Island	19 26 0	138 0 45	Idem.
Quatre Facardins .	18 47 0	138 10 0	Bougainville.
Idem	0 0 0	138 39 45	Fleurieu.
The Harp or Bow .	18 23 0	141 11 45	Cook.
The Chain . . .	17 23 0	145 53 45	Idem.
Isle of Dogs . . .	15 12 0	136 49 45	Burney.
Sondergrond or Sansfond [a]	14 46 0	144 3 0	Idem.
Waterland . . .	15 20 0	147 32 0	Idem.
Isle of Flies . . .	17 25 0	135 22 0	Bœnechéa [b].
St. Simon's Island .	17 30 0	136 40 0	Idem.
St. Quintin's Island	18 18 0	137 16 0	Wilson [c].
King George's Island	14 27 30	144 56 0	Byron and Cook.
Carlshof	15 45 0	145 15 0	Fleurieu.
Palliser's or Destructive Islands . .	15 26 0	146 30 0	Cook and Fleurieu.
Oanna, or the Labyrinth	15 38 15	149 0 0	Fleurieu. Turnbull.
Prince of Wales's Islands	0 0 0	151 47 45	Byron [d].
Idem.	0 0 0	148 12 5	Fleurieu.
Marquesas Islands.			
Chanal Island . .	7 51 0	140 16 15 W.	Idem.
Isle of Masse . .	8 0 0	140 29 0	Marchand.
The Two Brothers, (or Hergest's rocks)	8 51 0	140 34 15	Idem.

[a] The longitude of all these Islands, discovered by Lemaire and Schooten, is uncertain. But the results of Burney's learned calculations, in his History of Discoveries, deserve a place here.

[b] A Spanish navigator, not much to be depended on.

[c] The learned M. Zimmermann, in his Austr. lia, thinks that the Isle de Serle is probably the same with St. Quintin.

[d] Cook found that Byron placed King George's Islands too far west; and that error must have influenced the position of the Prince of Wales's Islands, discovered on the following day.

Places.	Longitude.	Longitude East or West from London.	Authorities.
	deg. min. sec.	deg. min. sec.	
Nooaheeva, (or Sir Henry Martin's Island)	8 54 0 S.	140 25 45 W.	Idem.
Rioo (or Roahooga)	9 5 0	139 10 15	Idem.
Idem	8 50 0	0 0 0	Vancouver.
Marchand (Trevanian Island, or Ropoa)	9 21 0	140 6 45	Fleurieu.
Hood's Island, or Teboa	9 26 0	138 48 45	Cook.
Dominique or Ohivaroa	9 40 37	139 2 15	Bailey and Wales.
Santa Christina, or Ohitahoo . . .	9 55 30	139 9 5	Cook's Astronomer.
San Pedro, or Onatéa	9 58 0	138 50 45	Idem.
La Madalena, or Ohitoa	10 25 30	138 48 45	Idem.
ROGGEWYN'S ARCHIPELAGO, &c.			
Bauman Island (conjectural) . . .	12 0 0	154 9 45	Fleurieu.
Tienhoven and Groningen (do.) . .	10 10 0	157 0 0	Idem.
Penrhyn	9 10 0	177 44 45	Severn and Watts [e].
St. Bernard Island .	10 20 0	161 9 45	Mendana. Quiros. Fleurieu.
Idem	10 10 0	157 41 45	Burney
Islands of Danger .	10 15 0	165 9 45	Byron [f].
Christmas or Noel Island	1 58 0 N.	157 31 45	Cook.
Palmyras . . .	5 56 0 N.	162 24 45	
Barbadoes . . .	8 40 0 N.	177 0 0	
SANDWICH ISLANDS.			
Owaïhee, Karakakoa bay	19 18 0	156 0 0	Idem.
Ibid. Tyatatoa bay	19 37 30	156 5 15	Vancouver.
Morotaï (east point)	21 4 0	156 49 45	Idem.
Woahoo, White-lee bay	20 16 47	158 50 5	Idem.
Atooi, Whymoa bay	21 57 30	159 50 30	Idem.
Oneehoo, Yam bay	21 50 0	160 14 45	Cook.
Necker Island . .	23 34 0	164 31 45	La Perouse.
Shallows discovered by the French frigates	23 45 0	165 49 45	Idem.

[e] This recent discovery happily supports Fleurieu's hypothesis on Roggewyn's Archipelago.

[f] According to Burney this island is identical with St. Bernard. Others would make it that of the *Gente Hermosa* of Quiros; but this last must be nearer Taumaco or Rotuma.

END OF VOLUME THIRD.

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